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THE RELATION OF THE PACIFIC COAST TO EDUCATION IN THE ORIENT.¹

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The ends of the earth at last have met. They have met and joined on the American continent midway between the Asiatic East and the European West. A place and shelter for the meeting has been prepared in the form of a nation blended out of all the bloods of mankind and builded neither on race nor the cults of kinship, but on the rights of man. This much has human society done, and geography has enforced the work by setting the abode of this nation between the two world-seas whose free highways make their side of the globe the easier way from the old Occident to the old Orient. Four hundred years after the Cabots touched the Atlantic hem of North America and one hundred years after Lewis and Clark brought the Cabots' work to fulfillment in carrying the Anglo-Saxon name through to the Pacific hem, in the year of our Lord, 1905, delegates of the greatest European empire followed the track of the sun a hundred degrees of longitude westward and delegates of the most vigorous Eastern power

¹ Address delivered before the Educational Congress at the Portland Exposition Tuesday, August 29, 1905. It was an interesting coincidence that after the close of the address and during the discussion which followed it, the first tidings of the conclusion of peace between Russia and Japan reached Portland and was announced to the Congress.

faced the sun and journeyed one hundred and thirty degrees eastward until they met in Portsmouth, and if they had reversed the division of distance it would have been in Portland;—in either case upon a continent prepared for them by collusion between the separate developments of government and of geography, upon a continent which was no other than that unexpected dyke of land which only four centuries ago suddenly arose out of the ocean's mists, and planted itself upon the map to block Columbus' way, when he sought the Orient by reversing the direction of the old-time caravan routes.

The arteries of empire and commerce in the twentieth century world pulse through the two great oceans. The great powers are those that maintain great navies. The ancient world looked inward with its back to the oceans and dealt with the land and inland seas. Power was quoted in terms of armies, and what were called fleets were merely armies fighting from scows in land-locked waters.

The ancient world in its highest organization consisted of two mutually exclusive parts, on the one hand Europe with Mohammedan Asia and Africa, on the other India and China. Between the two there was exchange of goods at arm's length, but no exchange of ideas or institutions. The Occident and the Orient dwelt apart and developed as antitheses. They never have understood each other; the fundamental concepts of the life-thought differ *toto coelo*.

The old Occident, Europe and Mohammedan Asia and Africa, was established in a blend of two minor antitheses, Europe and the Nearer East. The Mediterranean was the mixing pot, Constantinople was the label and seal. The Nearer East had the sources of its life in the civilizations of the two great river-valleys of the Nile and the Euphrates. Europe assorted its races by means of its rivers, pre-eminently the Volga, the Dnieper, the Vistula, the Elbe, the Danube, the Rhine, the Seine, the Rhone, and the Po;

and by its two southern peninsulas, Greece and Italy, inserted the wick into the oil of the greater world civilization. Greece discovered the creative freedom of the human mind, and established thereon the only human freedom that was ever worth the while; Palestine yielded faith in the goodness and power of the Single God; Rome provided for this mind and spirit the body of law and government, and out of the trinity arose the Mediterranean civilization we call European, of which our history, politics, art, thought, ethics, religion, in fact we all of us in all our spiritual being and environment are thus far an established part.

Over against this Mediterranean Occident has stood through all the ages unperturbed and impenetrable the incomprehensible Orient of India and China. The West could only understand their spices; not their salt. And for the spices and other spicy wares the dull camels tramped the Kashgar and the Kabul routes through the dark and unrecorded centuries, the only bond between the two great world-halves which were and are and mayhap always shall be. Nineveh and Trebizond, Babylon, Tyre and Sidon were built of the drippings of this inter-world-half trade, then when it diverged through the Red Sea Alexandria was enriched by it, and later when the Saracens intervened to disturb the old routes, Venice and Genoa became its monuments, and last of all with the discovery of the route around the Cape of Good Hope *nations* were enriched, first Portugal, then Holland, then England. It was not a new continent that Columbus set out to discover, but the old spices and gold of the old Orient. The finding of America instead was his undoing.

The yearning of the West has always been toward the East. It has sought its wares and spices, but behind all that has lain the half-formulated, half-confessed instinct to lay hand on the slumbering power that lurks behind the mystery of the East stored in the long-schooled industrial

patience of the Chinaman and the cosmic philosophy of the Hindoo. The emergence of the American continents as a mighty barrier across the path of the western route became a discouragement to the thought of using that route. The search for a passage to the north of North America persistently failed. The southern tip of South America pushed itself down more than twenty degrees of latitude farther than the Cape of Good Hope. Even the narrow isthmus of Panama proved a barrier rather than a highway. It took four centuries for men fully to dominate the barrier by occupying it with homes and cutting it through with steel highways. It will be yet a decade or more before the Panama canal is cut through.

Meantime the outreach toward the Orient has reverted to the eastern routes. First came the route round the Cape of Good Hope which created the colonial system of Holland and the empire of England. Then came the shortcut by the Suez Canal through the Red Sea. Then came the project of a railway joining southeastern Europe by way of Asia Minor and Persia to the head of the Persian Gulf. Then came the development of Russia's trans-Caspian route by steamers across the Caspian and railway on through Turkestan by Samarkand. Only the check of English power has prevented northern Persia and northern Afghanistan from melting into the jurisdiction of Russia and admitting the passage of a railway by the old route, Teheran to Herat to Kabul to India. So the ways revert to the old-time track of the caravans. And finally was built the trans-Siberian line on Russia's own soil almost to the shores of the Pacific. Even if northern Manchuria could be called Russian soil, it could not yet be granted that a railway issuing at Vladivostok had reached the Pacific, for that port was closed a third of the year by ice. The day came however when the watchful eye of England was averted or was closed in sleep. Russia displaced England in its place as China's good friend and

forced it over into an alliance with Japan. Li Hung Chang was bought with Russian gold. Russia carried her railway through to Port Arthur, and at last had found the open sea, and enrolled her destiny with the nations which found their empire in battle ships that ply the outer oceans. For centuries she had struggled to reach an ocean, but the nations plotted to keep her an inland power. The Baltic is almost an inland sea; its harbors are ice-bound in the winter, and Scandinavians and Germans control its exits. The Great Powers by a conspiracy of inaction leave the stranded hulk of Turkey to block the exit of the Black Sea. When Russia has looked for a way out by the Persian Gulf, England has always been ready to set a check, and now the interests of Germany which in recent years has been establishing itself as guardian of senile Turkey, will be even more potent to prevent. The commercial and perhaps the political interests of Germany lead her along the southwestern face of the Russian glacier. Her wares move southeast. In this direction too is the line of least resistance for the development of her political power. The railway to the head of the Persian Gulf will be hers. It is therefore just at present her policy to be the good friend and candid adviser of Russia, and gather in all the wreckage that issues from Russian disaster.

When at last in 1898 Russia seemed to have found its clear way to the open sea it appeared that the history of the world had advanced into a new stadium. A new power had entered the lists for the empire of the outer ocean. Northern and Central China were to be brought into relations and assimilated to the West through the mediation of half-occidental, half-oriental Russia, and oriental Japan of occidental veneer was to be robbed of its task, and stand doomed to finally inevitable absorption into the mass of Russia. Then it was that two events presented the opportunity for a total shifting of the horoscope.

These two events were the Boxer uprising and the Russo-Japanese war.

The former gave the opportunity for the issuance of John Hay's circular note stating the policy of the "open door." The circular note was a device forced upon our State Department by the classical incompetency of the United States Senate under its present constitution and its unwritten rules of courtesy. It is now a body incapable of largeness of view or promptitude of action. John Hay seized the opportunity and secured the assent of the powers to a policy opposed to partition of China, and established this policy—especially since the reaffirmation obtained by a second note, in a security as firm as any body of international treaties could assure. Throughout the Boxer troubles John Hay deftly avoided all recognition of the uprising as involving a state of war, and thus prevented Russia from obtaining a hold upon Manchuria that could arise from conditions of war. Herein lay his most certain and distinguished diplomatic service. This was an achievement of first importance, shapen in terms of the whole world-history. Russia had at the beginning assured our government that it proposed no permanent occupation of Manchuria and was present there only as the owner of a railway anxious only to secure peaceful and stable conditions for the operation of its property. John Hay took regular occasion to remind the representative of the Russian Government at Washington of this assurance, and to impress upon him the fact that our government had noted the assurance and accepted it in literal form.

John Hay appeared upon the scene in this critical juncture because our controversy with Spain had just at that time laid responsibilities upon our nation and established its interests in Asiatic waters. The juncture was rendered for us peculiarly critical by the fact that just at that time England was preoccupied in the Boer War and

had suffered notable decline of international prestige through the prolongation of that conflict. Whether by agreement or otherwise the United States stepped into the administration of what had hitherto been the English policy in the Chinese Orient. It was the policy of non-partition, of leaving China as a whole to work out its own adjustment to world-conditions, to administer its own awakening.

Close upon this event followed the Russo-Japanese war, the issue of which has certainly been to thrust back Russia from its debouchment upon the open ocean, and transform Japan from an island power to a power encircling the Sea of Japan.

If this issue shall be established as a permanent fact of history, the verdict means that this latter-day reversion to the caravan routes and the eastward track as the means of accomplishing the assimilation of the East to the West has met with rebuff, and again gone down in failure. The failure will have been due in chief measure to two things; first, the appearance of America as a power in the Pacific; second, the rise of Japan into the position of a modern nation able to assert itself. But it was from America Japan received its impulse toward the adoption of the modern equipment of life. The occidentalism which has affected it has come around the globe westward by the ocean route, not by the old eastward route on land.

The great problem with which world-history will have to deal in the next centuries concerns the assimilation of Eastern Asia to the other world-half. All through the long history of mankind India and China have gone their own way. They have received little or nothing from the thought and experience of the rest of the world, and given little to it. Their views of the universe and of the purpose and meaning of life are their own, developed out of their own experience and reflection without conference with the West. The man of the West and the man of

the East cannot therefore understand each other. There are no common factors in their thought. In superficial things they may seem to establish a temporary understanding, but they are apart on the fundamentals. They translate each other's thoughts by words that seem to be equivalents, but they are not; the concepts differ. When the Yankee thinks he has caught the secret of the Chinaman, then is he of all men most miserable; his trouble has really just begun, for to his ignorance is added the deceitful assurance of knowledge. To understand the guileless prattle of one of these sons of the Celestial Kingdom is one thing; it would be quite another to enter the mysterious caverns of a Chinese head, dwell in the quirks and convolutions of his brain, and look out through his eyes upon the world. Even if you then thought you knew the Chinaman, you surely would not recognize the world as being anything you had seen before.

The human society to which all we occidentals belong is a long-time work of history, and highly complicated, both as to materials and the forms of their blending and use. Every people and tribe, every religion and culture from Assyria to Ireland has contributed its part. We measure boards by Assyrian inches and jokes by the standards of Irish humor. All the elements of this vast and complicated social mass have become with time and intercourse and interchange more or less assimilated to each other. An Armenian and a Swede are infinitely nearer to each other than either is to a Hindoo or a Chinaman. India and China have not yet come into the world's kneading-trough. The time of their bringing in cannot, however, be longer delayed. The globe has shrunk to one-half in twenty years, and the nooks and lurking places are disappearing, and the barriers of mountain, desert, ocean.

The assimilation of this other world-half, so far as it concerns fundamental things,—the view-points of the inner

religion and folk-philosophy, will be slow, exceeding slow. The solid earth may not have the staying power and patience to wait therefore. But in the superficial things of materials, their making, use, and interchange, the assimilation will come fast, possibly too fast for the safety of the world. If the enormous force of the trained industrial patience of China shall be on a sudden armed with modern steel weapons, *i.e.*, machinery, engines, dynamos, rails, it means, of course, for the world an industrial cataclysm, an economic revolution and upturning from the depths. The Chinese patience in toil is not a personal acquisition of individuals; it is trained into the bone of the race, and the quality and quantity of it combine to give China a latent working force, an industrial power far exceeding that of all the nations added together. The native steadiness and conservatism of the Chinese must however give us fair assurance that the industrial transformation will come gradually enough for economic conditions at large to adapt themselves thereto.

However this all may be, the main fact which concerns us in connection with the analysis we have been attempting is this: the assimilation of the Chinese Orient to the modern world is through the Pacific Ocean by the westward path of the sun. The Pacific was of old a lonesome place where the day could change its clothes of number and name without being observed. The old world looked inward; China and India toward their river valleys, the occidental half toward the Mediterranean. The modern world is the old world turned inside out with outlook toward Oceanos that flows around the continents. When America was first occupied by colonists the inward-looking people of the old world, like the dwellers in an old Roman house built around a court with few outside windows, regarded the new continent as an outbuilding far back in the back yard. The colonists themselves thought of the Atlantic as something isolating them from the Old World,

and they claimed it as a wall of separation to free them from entanglement in the worn-out policies and systems and traditions of Europe, and to give them the thing they called "liberty." But now that the world has been turned inside out, the Atlantic proves to be only an estuary of the great ocean, and America, instead of being an outlying continent hidden away under the sunset, assumes its place in the center of the world, midway between the old occident and the goal of its incessant, age-long yearning, the unfathomed East.

Slowly at first but steadily throughout, and with cresting waves of energy in the last half century, the tide of advancing occidentalism has occupied the new continent and finally covered with deep flood its western coast. The Pacific Coast has thus become within fifty years the outer selvage of occidentalism. Its people, too, represent by their aggressive individualism, their riskfulness, and their power of creative initiative the most advanced type of the occidental spirit. They are what the old Greeks were in the days when Greece was the inner hem of the Occident.

A century ago when the world still looked inward and America was a distant annex and the Pacific a desert of waters, the eastern shore of our continent formed its front and façade. Now with the world turned inside out, with the Pacific established as the world's forum with the world's contrasted halves arrayed on the opposing shores, the front of the continent has shifted to the West. For its mission of the future the United States looks westward. A recent history of the United States cast in terms of geography opens with the statement: "The most important geographical fact in the past history of the United States has been their location on the Atlantic opposite Europe; and the most important geographical fact in lending a distinctive character to their future history will probably be their location on the Pacific opposite Asia."

(Semple.) I think this must be the opinion of all who have considered the course of human history in the large; I know it is the decided conviction of the writer and maker of history who lives in the White House at Washington, a conviction which has been borne in upon him with a special force by the events of the last three months.

Thus much by way of introduction, but the whole doctrine of my discussion inheres in my introduction. I might therefore do well to stop at this point, and I am sure you would be quite satisfied that I should, but there are yet sundry things which I would fain say, if only by way of annotation to my introduction.

The essential spirit of the modern ultra-occidentalism is betrayed in its ideals of education, which it derives from the Greeks, the ultra-occidentals of antiquity. The nucleoidal idea therein concerns a view of the universe wherein thought is the enlivening force, and the free spirit of thinking, planning, willing man the real creative source. Science is the order that human mind injects into the haphazard and waste of savagery and nature after abstracting from them their thoughtless laws by observation. The purpose of education is the ennobling and fulfillment of manhood to its liberation from circumstance, impulse, prejudice, superstition, the rule-of-thumb, and all things that mean slavery to the instant vision and thoughtless force. The aim of education is to develop to the full all the native capacities of the individual, so that he may live abundantly and be a freeman, a freeman in the face of unthinking nature by dominating it, in the face of his human environment by judging it correctly and dealing with it justly, in the face of his own self by controlling it. The theory of the whole Chinese system of education, whether in manners, crafts, or letters, involves the effort to fit and constrain the individual into conformity with his environment, so that he may perform the tasks that are awaiting him and live the life his ancestors have prepared

for him with the maximum of adjustment and the minimum of friction. For discovery, invention, innovation, creation there is no provision, except prevention. It approaches what is viciously called in this country "practical education"—the education that assumes to give skill and the knowledge of recipes without that control of the sources and bearings of the matter which enables mind to do its creative work of adapting means to new ends, meeting new emergencies, and making a man a freeman, the master of his job and not its slave. While the Chinese education seeks to shape the individual to his environment, the American training in its best form seeks to give the individual power within himself, *i.e.*, to make *him* powerful in himself to shape and create his environment. To the American life is real; to the Chinaman it is a drama set upon a stage. The business of the individual is to take the part and play the role assigned to him in the drama. To live well in the Chinese sense is to live in "good form," to "keep face." This is the antithesis both in view of life and theory of education which we are called upon to bridge.

Within the next decades the educational institutions of the Pacific Coast in first line of those of America will surely be called upon, to an extent out of all proportion to anything in the past, to render service in opening western education to the people of the Orient. As it always has been in the history of human education, betterments and reforms will proceed from the top downward. The universities will lay the foundations. It will be the Chinamen trained in the best our universities can give who will begin the reorganization of their home education and train the teachers for the common schools. A recent Chinese graduate of the University of California has already been put at the head of the educational system of a Chinese province, and is just now busied with the difficult task of founding embryonic normal schools for the training of

the first teachers who are to infuse Western learning into the heads and lives of Chinese boys. Within the three last years, aside from the Chinese coming to the university on their own responsibility, a considerable number have been sent by one or another of the provincial governments to be trained for the government service, some in law, some in political science, some in education, some in engineering, some in commerce, and some in finance. There are no better students to-day in the university. If we can teach them initiative and sense of control and the modern sciences whose development rests upon these qualities of mind, yet we can learn from them, as our civilization can learn from its Eastern antipode, a patient recognition of the power of time and of the force residing in the inertia of great social masses and the value of persistent adherence to the obligations of duty and loyal service to the inherited order of the family and society. A man is of small use to his day and generation, be he Chinaman or American, who absolves himself, as hermit, tramp, and bandit from all relation or obligation to the life-line of descent and posterity as established in the laws and responsibilities of the fireside, the homestead, and the home community.

An entirely different problem confronts us regarding the Filipino people who have fallen under our oversight in the order of events. They came to our hands because we had a Pacific Coast. Dewey entered Manila Bay because a Spanish fleet lying there was a menace to the harbors of our coast. The rest followed inevitably. What we have done as a nation for these people is worthy of the best interpretation of our democracy. We have done what no nation has done for a colony of alien race. We have sought to give them through education the power of self-determination. They differ from all other oriental peoples in that they have enjoyed the advantage of centuries under Christian influence. These centuries have not

been in vain in bringing them nearer toward an assimilation into Western civilization. While lacking the Chinese stability, they are bright and versatile, and the best of their youth will respond readily to the opportunities of our higher education and develop into leaders of their people. What is needed by their people is leaders in commerce, law, medicine, engineering, and agriculture,—not politicians. Already in considerable numbers Filipino boys are coming to our universities and schools, and the immediate future will make large demands upon the institutions of the Coast for their care.

Our nation was shapen for the work of evangelization. It has gathered into it all the bloods and faiths of the occidental world, and has moulded them together into a people out of which is emerging the concept *man*. It has based its institutions upon democracy, the most daring optimism devised by man, a system of governing whose chief *raison d'être* lies in its power to educate and uplift men by conferring responsibility, and saying to them, "The law and the kingdom, lo, they are within you." The faith of our fathers is our faith to-day; our evangelizing zeal is the zeal of democracy,—the ultimate zeal of the West,—to make men self-determining and self-governing. Is democracy a failure? Our answer is the answer of John Paul Jones to the question of the Serapis, "Have you surrendered?"—"We have not yet begun to fight."

THE ABUNDANT LIFE.¹

BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

We are living in days of abundance. The life of the average man lays daily tribute upon the resources of the world. The conditions of the old-time Salisbury hill-farm, which fed its owners on its spareribs and corn-meal, and sweetened their taste with the crystallized sap of its maples, and which reckoned a man with a savings-bank account and a hundred stonewalled and unmortgaged acres "forehanded" if not positively rich, have ceased to be the typical conditions of the American present-day prosperity. The forehanded farmer of twenty cows who dwelt in the square white house with green blinds, an elm tree in the door yard, ten barrels of apples and twenty bushels of potatoes in the cellar, and six cords of split birchwood in the shed, knew no other home or abiding-place, had no club house except the winter evenings in the country store or the space about the long box stove between forenoon and afternoon meeting on Sunday, and no outing or recreation except town meeting or the annual muster, or an occasional picnic at Hampton beach.

The economic conditions of the last ten years have suddenly produced a portentously numerous class of American beings,—so numerous as to make them the typical well-to-do,—whose whole strength and wit are completely absorbed

¹ Address delivered at Dartmouth College, June 27, 1905.

in devising the means of spending any reasonable proportion of their income. Their money has torn them away from the ordinary standards of home and civic life, created a new set of conditions for them, made them its servants. They change their abiding-place with the seasons, have no home, and have forgotten where they vote. Very common it is that the family has become nomadic only on the female side, father and son continuing the struggle in Wall street, because, after the manner of the great American game, there is no good place to stop. They have the wolf securely by the ears, but they have neither garnered him in, nor dare they let him go. In this case, the abundance of this world's goods has availed to break up not only the home but the family.

Another situation is that where the father of the family is in attendance upon the nomadic exercises of his household. This generally indicates that his business has been absorbed by a trust. He has lost his old place in the world's work, and has not found a new one. A faint relic only of his old business energy survives in his exacting discussion of the relative merits of hotels and his earnest efforts to secure a new and more dauntless chauffeur; and all that remains of his old business itself, shop, office, and mill, is concentrated in a pale clerk wielding the scissors in a subterranean safe-deposit. There is nothing left for him to do. A valet packs his trunk, a trust company collects his rents, and a masseur takes his exercise. And the last state is worse than the first.

The sudden dislodgment of life-conditions produced by the rapid access of wealth, in the case of such as allow their lives to be mastered by material wealth, commonly results in a pitiful maladjustment of machinery to work demanded. A man buys more villas than he can live in, more clothes than he can wear, and more yachts than he can sail; and then he fills his life with false movements in a nervous attempt to keep the machinery going. He buys a crush

hat and attends the Grand Opera, when he would rather hear an anvil chorus, and orders French entrees when his old-home instinct would have rather suggested to him a candid consideration of such viands as baked beans and brown bread, hominy and molasses.

The wealth of our day has been created,—not found, but really created, by bringing things together that belong together in use, by transporting things from where they are not wanted to where they are wanted, and where they can be combined with other things to serve the purposes of human existence. Nature has scattered things helter-skelter without reference to the complicated needs of human society, and it is the art of man, pre-eminently the art of commerce that assembles, distributes and classifies them to the satisfaction of the affinities of use in human civilization. Pepper was not wealth in its native Indies, but those who joined it with the insipid vegetables of Northern Europe created the wealth of ancient commerce and set in motion the world commerce that has been drawing the two great halves of the world together. The wealth of Pittsburgh in this latest day has been created by bringing together there iron and coke to make steel, the wonderful substance that can fetter, control, and guide the new-found powers of electricity and steam. The world's wealth is begotten of moving things about intelligently. The railway, the steamship, the post-office, the telegraph and the telephone, as the agents of intercourse, are the chief instruments of modern wealth-building, as the camel and galley were of old.

Every epoch develops its own diseases in the form of parodies on its distinctive impulses. An age of liberation begets license and disorder, an age of religious intensity yields superstition and intolerance, an age of artistic creation deals in a by-product of æsthetic degeneracy, and in this the world's greatest epoch of wealth-building by intercourse, transportation, movement, the great character-

istic disease endemic in all ultra-modern society is pseudo-motion. Those who cannot move intelligently, hustle; those whose nerves have been shattered in the rush of the day, if they cannot work, must needs move hurriedly. They fret the ocean with the nervous keels of steam yachts, though they go nowhither; they raise the dust of the roads and imperil the lives of sober folk with their automobiles, but they have no real errand. The rigid firmness, and awful tensility lined upon their faces speak of a goal and a purpose, but are really the index of delusion. These people are victims of disease; they are sick with *Kinetitis*, and their vision of purposeful movement toward a goal has nothing in it more real than the snakes of an alcoholic dream.

One of the saddest features of these lives pursued by wealth consists in their isolation from humanity. The machinery and equipment of living establishes the barrier. People who maintain steam yachts and dine Frenchfully at eight, and flit between Lenox and Newport and Palm Beach and Homburg, are naturally and automatically driven into the society of the like-conditioned, and bound there. Their sons attend the same expensive academies, their daughters are polished off at the same élite schools; their sons and daughters meet together at the assemblies of the 400, as well as at the summer resorts and winter resorts and spring resorts, and they intermarry and inter-divorce; and the caste of the great rich emerges. Sound judgment and clear perspective in the motives and movements of human life are seldom found among these people of the caste, who drag the golden ball and chain. If you want to know what is stirring in the hearts of the American people, you cannot find it out in Wall street. A man who comes fresh from touch with the warm popular life and current opinion of the great breezy Central West and enters Wall street to discuss a matter of national importance is bound to feel with Pip when he entered the cob-

webbed house of Miss Havisham. The men immured there are wont to underestimate the intelligence and range of information of the American people. They recognize that the people have learned they are paying twenty to thirty per cent. too much for life insurance, only when the diminished returns for new insurance come in, and they learn reluctantly that Theodore Roosevelt has for his integrity of purpose the confidence of the farms and firesides of the nation only when the votes come in. The graves at the head of the street bring no competent reminder of the safe-deposit where moth and rust do not corrupt, and the upward yearning tower points no one to the place where treasure may be safely lodged. Wealth can be verily a wall to bar a man from men, and it is written that it may become a camel's hump to isolate a man from heaven.

Enough has been said, though only by way of casual, if not too flippant, illustration to indicate the certainty that abundance of goods cannot insure either to a people or to an individual that quality of existence which we are justified in associating with the notion of richness, fulness, abundance of life. A man lives abundantly according as he opens his life to the opportunities of the world he lives in,—opens it both to receive and to give, both to be and to do; according as he make his personality, being what it is, count for the most possible, time, place and environment being what they are.

This may be a pretty small world as worlds go, but it is a considerably variegated one. It contains all sorts and conditions of men, every one of whom is himself a complicated composite of good and bad, harsh and kind. It is seldom that the motive of any single human act is simple and single; certain it is that the motives of social action within the body of a community are always involved to the highest degree of complexity. Human action may be occasionally for purposes of legal defence reduced to apparent conformity with the forms of logic, but it is gener-

ally when so reduced that it assumes its most deceptive guise. The person who regards the action and character of individual, class, race, or humanity from the simple and single view point of his own status and condition and over the hair-line of his own logic is living the typical life of poverty,—the life of prejudice, bigotry, snobbery, and provincialism. Have you ever caught yourself nurturing a long and deeply-rooted dislike of some person based on some apparently simple interpretation of that person's manner or actions or views, and then on becoming really acquainted with the person found these things suddenly readjust themselves according to new lines of orientation, so that appreciation and admiration advanced into the place of dislike? What probably had happened was that you had through sympathetic acquaintance with the individual found your way to the correcter view point whence the lines of action and character in that human life assumed the aspect of a more sensible and harmonious plan. The gossip, personal prejudices, and cliques which haunt small towns are due to the presence of data in permanent incompleteness. A fixed prejudice is a case of arrested development. Like the petty village aversions, racial and social prejudices generally affect what is near at hand, what one sees and does not know. The man who has made up his mind that he dislikes Jews or Chinese or some other blood has introduced into his life a persistent source of narrowness, blindness, and poverty. He has raised a barrier between himself and the exceeding richness of human fellowship. He has shut his eyes to the recognition of some things well established in the best experiences and well worth a man's while to know, such as that the poor and lowly are usually kinder and more generous to each other than are the rich, that most people are more good than bad, and that there are few humans and few kinds of humans of whom it may not be said that they are mighty interesting, if you get down where they are.

Social prejudice is mostly of one sort with racial prejudice. The latter is surely in but small part due to physical aversion, if at all. It is in its substance social and based in difference of inherited manners, garb, tongue, and modes or moulds of thought, in the ways of looking at things. Here we need the historical spirit to aid us to the hub-point, so as to see the spokes straight. The exchange of messages between Togo and the Mikado after the great naval victory rings weird and quaint if not absurd to our occidental ears, but judged in the acoustics of the religious-social atmosphere their fundamental thought has inherited, Togo's attribution of the victory to the "excellent virtue of the Mikado," and the Mikado's satisfaction that he may make therewith "response to the spirits of his ancestors" are no gilded phrases, but expressions rich in beauty, worth, and truth.

It is undoubtedly true that individual or people can safely build its way up into the wider atmosphere of cosmopolitanism only by retaining sure foundations in the system of conduct and the view of life embodied as the vitalizing spirit in the family, the clan, the tribe, or the community from which they sprang. A process of cosmopolitanizing that moves so fast as to sunder connection with these foundations means moral disaster to man or people. And yet the opportunities of the larger life are continually beckoning us away from the narrownesses of village and parish, and the man who is to play the full man's part in the work of the greater world must lay aside the garb and the dialect of the province. We have gradually become a nation in place of an aggregation of states. It was not by a formal governmental union of the thirteen states strung along the Atlantic Coast, but through the uniting of the people of those states in the occupation of land to the westward of them. The national sentiment has steadily worked back from the West toward the East. But local mechanism long since outgrown in the actual conditions of intercourse often survives to the embarrassment

of our national life. We need national laws for divorce, for the oversight of insurance, for the regulation of the traffic of the great national system of railways. We are a nation and must have national laws for national concerns. We are a nation, and in the great mass of the interests of our lives we are commonly conditioned whether we live in New England, Texas, or California; and it behooves us while holding fast to local safeguards for local interests to court the inspiration of the fuller, richer national life, and be Americans.

Provincialmindedness is in one respect only a larger size of that same selfishness which shows itself within the community as privatemindedness. Nothing proves so conclusively that we are fundamentally and primarily social and civic beings as the aridity, blasting, and death which befall a man who devotes himself to his dooryard, to the utter neglect of his sidewalk. That attitude toward public affairs which bears upon its escutcheon the stirring heraldic legend: "I don't see anything in that for me" holds within it the potency for larger mischief in the future of free institutions than all the criminality of all the burglars and drunkards and murderers in the nation. The free institutions we inherit cannot be entrusted to the keeping of political specialists. The peculiar character of these institutions implies on the part of everyday citizens a political activity animated by public spirit and involving self-sacrifice. When it shall come to pass that no one takes any active interest in politics except those who expect sometime, either directly or indirectly, to get something out of the state, either by way of honor or gain, then the end may fairly be said to have come. All the jobs and all the job-craving and all the job-cravers will then have been rolled up into one gigantic political trust handling government like any other commodity, beef, tobacco, or oil.

One cannot fairly advise a young man to go into politics, if that means office-seeking, and especially if it means

bread-winning. A man who has the ability to succeed in politics could make a very much better living in business than he can honestly in politics. The political need of to-day is for business men of education and character who will attend elections and caucuses and conventions as citizens and not as politicians. The caucuses are of more importance than the elections, and the conferences than the caucuses. It cannot be expected that a business man will ordinarily find the time to follow politics, but he can at least do what he does regularly, and keep the pressure on. In time he will find himself a force that the politicians reckon with; he will be consulted; his opinions will have weight. The spasmodic citizenship of some of our best people provokes Beelzebub to smile. Nothing disturbs him less than a reform movement or a New Year's resolution. He is a great corporation and holds his attorneys on permanent retainers, and keeps his agents, promoters, and lobbyists always on the watch. If you are going to effect anything important against him you have got to join the organization and fight him with machine-guns and not with mugwumpian bean-blowers.

The canny advice which old business men sometimes give young men to let politics alone, lest it interfere with business and alienate customers is the advice of a small caution that partakes of cowardice. The self-protective type of man that is always looking out for his own precious cuticle and is afraid of bumps will not live the abundant life. A certain amount of risk is inseparable from a generous, virile activity in the full tide of affairs, and a certain number of mistakes is to be expected and they will not matter much, if only you do not lie about them. Football is not much of a lady's game, but a lame knee is better than smooth effeminacy. The abundant life may be full of bruises and toil, covered with dust, and harsh with publicity, but it is a man's life and the life of red blood, which the cautious, cowering life of privatemindedness is not.

It is a constant temptation of the scholar to hoard his learning as a miser hoards his gold. Pedantry is bullion abstracted from circulation, or jewels hung upon the flesh like ear-rings. Hoarded bullion is dead money, and learning gathered à propos of no social need and suited to no human use is dead knowledge. It is only the learning that has gone over into life blood and can govern action that is capable of being transferred to the awakening of life in others. But here is the crux of all our learning and educating,—to make it move in the veins. If education does not aid us to live more fully and richly, it surely fails. The purpose of all this elaborate mechanism of education cannot be to provide us with recipes or equip us with mystic formulas, or deck us with robes, or make us peculiar beings or members of a caste; its real purpose must be after all, with all its waste and mishits, with all its oscillations and nutations of pedagogic theory, to create in men *good health*, to make red blood flush the veins and fill life to the full with knowing, enjoying, being, and doing.

The subjects taught in schools and colleges are intended to provide good food, not drugs, for growing mental and spiritual organisms; and the purpose of the round of training we call liberal education is to preserve, encourage, and develop good health, plain, normal, sound good health without hypertrophies. It is the good health that staves off infection, conquers illness, and is more contagious than disease. It includes good health of body with power to digest food, breathe air, and carry burdens; good health of mind with power to see straight, arrange concepts, construct thought, devise, invent, and imagine, and above all to use in judgment the priceless sanity of common sense; and thereto are added health of will with power to choose, decide, and act, and health of spirit with unsickened vision of the simple native order of the universe, which is the eternal right, and power to have sympathy with the hearts of men and hold communion with the life of God.

Among the various forms of institutions devoted to American education the college as guardian of the liberal training is the one that has set itself most distinctly to the task of nurturing the fuller life. In its best significance and use it is the school of the abundant life. It does its greatest work through the establishment of a household. Life is trained and fed and inspired by contact with other life combined with it under the fusing influence of an institutional connection and institutional loyalty. We are social beings and must belong to things; if it is not clans and tribes then it must be societies fashioned after the image of blood-relationships and inspired and informed by loyalties in place of the old blood religions and tribal cults. It is well if these loyalties are exercised toward an institution as noble and clean and rich in ideals as an American college. One healthful result of modern college athletics has been the stimulus it has given to college spirit as a reflex and image of tribal religion. Even the songs and wareries, the dances and pow-wows of the council fire will bear the analogy. To the uninitiated they remain a mystery and "to the natural man foolishness," but they are the power of Athena unto salvation. Many a college man out in life has found himself at the crossways of a vital decision and has chosen the narrower way, because he remembered his college and feared to disgrace her.

Nothing should be permitted within the college to prevent the frank association of men of all grades, conditions, and antecedents. From this point of view the dormitory is better than the chapter-house. The danger of the latter is the insidious encouragement of a snobbish exclusiveness,—a thing utterly hostile to the spirit and intent of the American College. Men are associated in the chapter-house for the creation of a smaller family circle within which helpful intimacies may be assured as they cannot be in the larger forum. This is good, but it must be cautiously guarded lest it compromise the larger interests of the clan and tribe.

To return again to the mention of college athletics, it must be said that great as is its service to the consciousness of institutional solidarity, it is at present tending with dangerous rapidity toward the conferment of its physical, if not its spiritual blessings, upon a few chosen specialists. It must be remembered that toughening of the vocal chords cannot really be regarded as satisfying the demands of physical culture in terms of achieving to the abundant life.

Though association with one's fellows and athletics weigh heavily in determining the import of the college course, it must be admitted that it is of some importance what one studies. With all the pending disagreements regarding the food-values of different subjects of study, I think we must be approaching agreement on the thesis that leisurely assorted courses selected according to the attractiveness of their announcement, the relation of their hours to convenience of attendance, and the reputation of their purveyors for severity of standard do not combine to make a full meal. It is seldom worth while to choose a course, because one thinks he would like to know something about that subject. As far as specialization is concerned, it is my experience that a student has made a mistake who cannot see at the end of his curriculum that he has brought his work to focus upon some field or method of inquiry and experiences some sense of independent control in the material of some science. It is also my experience that the best specialists, and the ones that wear best, are those who lay broad foundations, eschew attractive short-cuts, and bring their studies gradually toward the apex of a pyramid. All subjects tend to become scientific in their mode of treatment as they are adjusted to the needs of maturer minds. History, literature, and language as taught to advanced students demand scientific method. The real contrast that now shapes itself in the courses of the college is that between humanistic and nature subjects, not that between literary and scientific methods. While nature subjects undoubtedly

serve more uniformly to quicken observation and encourage precision, they are less successful in quickening the imagination, arousing social ideals, and deepening human sympathy. They encourage more to the use of reasoning based on full data and employing the complete syllogism, but they enfeeble the mind for contingent reasoning and the use of the incomplete syllogism. And yet these latter are the forms we are compelled to employ in most of our life judgments. Here below we see mostly in a glass darkly, and we seldom find opportunity to regulate our lives or determine their choices according to definite, complete and final objective tests such as rule in the success of nature. A man who thinks he can govern his life by pure science is apt to be very wearisome to his neighbors and cumbersome to himself. It has often been said that the nature sciences deal with and disclose the real, but it seems to me far more likely that the real things still are those disclosed in loves and hopes, insights and faith, and that for these the methods of the objective test can only provide constant corrections and adjustments, not defeats.

Life is nourished of life, and it will remain in the future as it has been in the past that the nurture of the suppler larger life and the culture of the sounder health will proceed by use of the products of life. Life is begotten of life, and it will remain in the future as it has been in the past, that the health of the spiritual life passes neither from book or subject but from the life of the master to the life of the pupil. The greatest education is the giving of life, and the greatest teacher was one who came that ye might have life,—and have it more abundantly.

THE ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE PHILIPPINES.¹

BERNARD MOSES.

The system of primary instruction established under Spanish rule made formal provision for one male and one female teacher for each five thousand inhabitants. But even this inadequate provision was never carried out. There was practically no provision made for the education of the bulk of the inhabitants. There were few schoolhouses, no suitable furniture or apparatus, and no proper text-books. Where there was a schoolhouse it was occupied by the teacher, and the school was held in a part of the building not desired for the residence. Where there were no schoolhouses, which was the ordinary condition, schools were held in the residences of the teachers. School rooms entirely without furniture were not unusual, and in this case the pupil sat on the floor. The teachers were inadequately paid, and to increase their meager incomes they collected tribute from the pupils. The instruction covered reading, writing, sacred history, and the catechism; in some of the towns the four elementary arithmetical processes were also taught, and a little book on geography was used as a reading book. Girls were taught embroidery and some other forms of needlework. From the beginning the schools were

¹ From Lectures on the Governments of Dependencies, University of California.

very largely, if not entirely, under the supervision of the religious orders, who were disposed to emphasize secondary and higher education for a few pupils, rather than to promote the primary education of the masses. Special stress was also naturally laid on subjects connected with the Christian religion. The result of this policy was that a few persons stood out prominently as educated Filipinos, while the great mass of the people were either not educated at all or furnished only the rudiments of knowledge, learning merely to read and write. The little school instruction the average Filipino had did not give him power of independent thought. There was a disposition on the part of the pupils to give back like phonographs what they had heard or read or memorized. As a rule they possessed mechanical skill, and excelled in writing and drawing, but the Spaniards made very little use of this marked capacity.

It is stated that when the Spaniards took possession of the islands the members of several of the tribes could read and write their own languages, but it is probable that the utterances on this subject are extravagant. At present there is no tribe all the members of which can read and write either their native language or any other language. During the Spanish period the system of instruction was inefficient. The Spanish minister for the colonies called attention to the fact that the affairs of education had fallen into the hands of the religious orders. In a report made December 5, 1870, he said that "while every acknowledgment should be made of their services in earlier times, their narrow exclusively religious system of education and their imperviousness to modern or external ideas and influences, which every day become more and more evident, render secularization of instruction necessary."

Yet the system of instruction established by the Spaniards remained essentially unchanged until the advent of the Americans. In a typical school the pupils read at first a religious primer in the native language, and later a work

on Christian doctrine. The pupils were obliged to commit to memory the exact words of the text-book. Then the teacher heard one pupil at a time while the others were studying aloud, apparently doing their best to drown the voices both of the teacher and of the pupil reciting. The instruction was thus tediously mechanical, noisy, and inefficient. The schools had no daily programmes, and were consequently usually in confusion. The teachers were underpaid and held only an inferior position in the community. Little or no effort was made to increase the professional knowledge or efficiency of the teacher, and the teachers themselves manifested little professional enthusiasm. Not only had the schools under the Spanish régime no prescribed courses of study, but also no definite standards for each year. They were in charge of persons badly trained or without training, and were held in unsuitable and unsanitary buildings.

While the Islands were under the control of the American army, important steps were taken towards establishing schools and improving the system of instruction. Better text-books were brought into use; officers of the army were appointed to be superintendents of schools; soldiers in some instances were detailed to teach English; but the difficulty of getting a sufficient number of properly trained teachers was insurmountable. Without more radical measures than the officers of the army felt justified in taking, it was impossible to lift the schools out of their chaotic condition.

Under the authority of the Military Governor forty-one thousand dollars were expended for stationery and text-books. The Filipinos were eager to learn English, but the soldiers detailed to teach them were not uniformly successful. When, therefore, the power to make laws and control the expenditure of the insular funds passed to the Commission, the organization of an effective public school system was one of a number of subjects that needed early attention.

Before leaving Washington, the Commission sought a proper person for the office of General Superintendent of Education. It was recognized that the conditions under which it was proposed to establish a system of public instruction were unfamiliar to American teachers and superintendents, and that in the proposed appointment there was risk of securing the services of a person successful in America, but who might have become rigid in his ideas of methods and be without the power of adapting himself to the strange circumstances of the Islands. The most strongly recommended candidate was Dr. Fred W. Atkinson, principal of a high school in Springfield, Mass. At a meeting of the Commission, therefore, on the transport "Hancock," between San Francisco and Honolulu, on April 23, 1900, Dr. Atkinson was elected General Superintendent of Education for the Philippines, at an annual compensation of six thousand dollars, with an allowance for travelling expenses for himself and wife, from Springfield to Manila and return, and for such other travelling expenses as he might incur in visiting the Indian schools at Carlyle, Pa., Hampton, Va., the Tuskegee Institute in Alabama, and other schools. On September 1, 1900, he assumed the duties of his office, and was at the same time made acting superintendent of schools in Manila. He was relieved of the duties of this latter position by the arrival of Dr. David P. Barrows in October.

It was recognized very early that in order to attain efficiency and a proper standard of instruction, the schools must be under a centralized management. The general superintendent was, therefore, given extensive authority; and it was provided that he should be assisted by division superintendents, who should reside in the several divisions of the archipelago. The law at first recognized ten of these divisions. Under the supervision of the general superintendent each division superintendent exercised immediate control over the schools of his division.

The original bill framed to organize public instruction in the Philippines was brought before the Commission on the 11th of January. It was made brief in the expectation that it would be amplified later, when its amendments and modifications might be based on a fuller knowledge of the social conditions and the needs of the people in different parts of the Islands. It had already been determined that every important bill should be discussed in public, and that any person interested might take part in the discussion, and oppose or support the provisions of the bill under consideration. The public discussion of this bill extended over many days. The section that excited more comment than any other was that treating the relation of the schools to the church. It became manifest in the course of the discussion that there were two opinions in the Commission on this subject. Two of the members were in favor of making the public schools in the Philippine Islands hold the same relation to the church as the public schools in the United States. The three others wished to introduce the system tried for a short period at Faribault, Minnesota. A certain element in the church in America approved of this plan, and this fact furnished a political consideration in favor of its adoption. The section covering this subject was presented in the following form:

"No teacher or other person shall teach or criticise the doctrines of any church, religious sect or denomination, or shall attempt to influence the pupils for or against any church or religious sect in any public school established under this act. If any teacher shall intentionally violate this section, he or she shall, after due hearing, be dismissed from public service.

"*Provided, however,* that it shall be lawful for the priest or minister of any church established in the pueblo where a public school is situated, either in person or by a designated teacher of religion, to teach religion for one-half an hour three times a week in the school buildings to those

public-school pupils whose parents or guardians desire it and express their desire therefor in writing filed with the principal teacher of the school, to be forwarded to the division superintendent, who shall fix the hours and rooms for such teaching. But no public-school teacher shall either conduct religious exercises, or teach religion, or act as a designated religious teacher in the school building under the foregoing authority, and no pupil shall be required by any public-school teacher to attend and receive religious instruction herein permitted. Should the opportunity thus given to teach religion be used by the priest, minister, or religious teacher for the purpose of arousing disloyalty to the United States, or of discouraging the attendance of pupils at such public school, of creating a disturbance of public order, or of interfering with the discipline of the school, the division superintendent, subject to the approval of the general superintendent of public instruction, may, after due investigation and hearing, forbid such offending priest, minister, or religious teacher from entering the public school building thereafter."

In the discussion of the proposed law only a few of those who participated spoke in favor of the provisions of this section. All of the Filipinos but one opposed the introduction of the Faribault plan. Two or three speakers advocated projects not involved in the bill. Thomas G. del Rosario, representing the newly formed federal party, wished to have the first section require that primary instruction should be gratuitous and compulsory. He was informed by the Commission that the bill as originally drawn provided for compulsory instruction, but, in view of the fact that existing schoolhouses and other facilities in the Islands were entirely inadequate to provide for all the children of school age, it was thought expedient to postpone the enactment and enforcement of such a requirement. Senor Rosario urged, moreover, that the section providing for religious instruction in school buildings should be

stricken out. He expressed the belief that it would be a source of discord in the field of public instruction. He held that the schools and the church should be kept absolutely distinct, and affirmed that this concession to the church was opposed to the sentiments of the mass of the Filipino people. He cited as evidence of the attitude of the Filipino people on this question the action of the Malolos Congress, which, after thorough argument, decreed the absolute separation of the church and the state.

Modesto Reyes advocated the appointment of a council to act in conjunction with the general superintendent; and also the establishment of a school of agriculture near Manila. Pedro A. Paterno supported the plan of having a council to advise with the general superintendent. He wished the law to direct the superintendent more specifically as to places in which schools should be established, and urged that there should be a school in every barrio, or one for every five hundred inhabitants. Dr. Xeres y Burgos appeared, as he said, not on behalf of any political party or church organization, but as the father of a family interested in its welfare. He directed his remarks entirely to the section treating of the relation of the church to the schools. He amplified the arguments already advanced against religious teaching in the school buildings, and urged the omission of this section. He feared the concession proposed would engender strife and bitterness, and bring to the surface again all the ills against which the Filipinos had struggled, and from which they now believed themselves free. Individual liberty would be limited, and the subtle influence of the churchmen would impose itself further and further upon the consciences of the people and gradually stifle all political freedom. If the priests of the several creeds wished to spread their faiths, they might do so freely in their churches or in other places without the assistance of the state, but under its vigilance. He expressed his belief that if the Filipinos who love their

country could vote on this question the proposed section would not be adopted.

Another view of the question was presented by Manuel Ravago, manager of "*Libertas*," a newspaper conducted in the interest of the friars. He spoke of the work done by the Catholic Church in the Islands and its strong hold on the hearts and minds of the people. The people wished their sons and daughters taught the Catholic faith and no other, and as they supported the schools they had the right to demand that the teachers should be Catholics, and that only Catholic schools should be established. If other sects existed they were in the minority, and if they wished to teach their religion, they should maintain their own teachers. He objected to the statement that religion should be taught in the churches, because the people were accustomed to have religion taught in the schools, and because in the country districts churches were not easily accessible. The parents could not give religious instruction, as they were not familiar with the church doctrines. He urged, therefore, that religion should be taught in the schools, but that the teaching should be confined to the Catholic religion. He wished the section in question to be amended so as to provide: 1. That all primary teachers throughout the archipelago should be Catholics; 2. That as long as the Catholic religion continued to be the universal religion professed in the Philippines it should be taught in the schools; 3. That this religious instruction should form a part of the daily instruction which the teacher should be compelled to impart to the children who attended the school. Referring to the project to take teachers from America, Senor Ravago argued that such teachers should be brought only in case sufficient native teachers could not be had, and then only to the extent of this deficiency. He expressed his belief that there was no need of American teachers; the teaching of English did not create a necessity. He held that the native teacher was better qualified to teach the

Filipinos than American teachers. Furthermore, the United States could not send teachers to the Islands, because it did not have enough for its own needs.

The president stated to Senor Ravago that the amendments proposed were clearly in violation of the instructions of the Commission, and of every principle that prevails under the American constitutions, whether state or national; and that they could not possibly be adopted by the Commission. Senor Rosario then replied to Ravago, and affirmed that the position taken by the *Centro Catolico de Filipinas*, represented by Ravago, was the best argument he could produce against permitting a participation of the church in the affairs of the schools; that what the church wanted, and has always wanted, was the exclusive control of education. He denied the statement that seven million Filipinos, or any considerable number outside of the religious orders, desired religious instruction in the schools. The very thing the *Centro Catolico* was contending for was the thing that had brought down Spanish sovereignty in the Islands; for the revolution of this people was not a political war, and was not against the Spaniards, but was against the desire on the part of the church to impose itself upon every action of the people. Senor Rosario rejected the conclusions of the previous speaker concerning American teachers, saying that what the Islands needed was new modes of thought and new modes of instruction; and that as English was the commercial language of the Orient it should be given the first place in the instruction of the children.

Senor Cataline Sevilla, a Filipino teacher of much experience and a writer on education, took up the theme that engaged the special attention of all the speakers. He said that while it was the evident purpose of the law to separate religious instruction from the teaching in the public schools, he believed that the permission it was proposed to give to teach religion in the school buildings, even though

outside of school hours, would vitiate the intention of the Commission. He called attention to the fact that the majority of the teachers were Catholics and subject to the influence of the priests, at the same time affirming that he was a Catholic. As the law in the form proposed would give the priests the right to use the schoolhouse, the result, especially in country districts, would be to perpetuate the old order of affairs. The teachers would be under the religious dominion of the priests, and would be compelled to give religious as well as secular instruction to the children; that is, they would be required to see that the children were kept in the school room, to attend to the religious instruction which the parents wished them to receive. In case Protestants demanded this privilege where the teachers were Catholics, the situation would be embarrassing; for as Catholic teachers they might be instructed by the priests to have nothing whatsoever to do with Protestantism.

Replying to the assertion that the churches would be inconvenient for religious instruction, Senor Sevilla maintained that this would not be the case in Manila, while in the country districts houses could be readily found that would be suitable for the purposes of instruction; and this would prevent the government, the children, or the teachers from having anything to do with religious differences, and the schoolhouse from being the source of disorder.

In response to a query as to what would probably be the attitude of the people should religious teaching be prohibited in the school buildings, the speaker said that such an order had been in effect more than a year, and yet over two hundred and forty pupils were enrolled in his school and he had noticed no falling off in attendance. He thought that this would be the case in all the large towns, but he could make no statement concerning the smaller places, as he was not familiar with them.

In a brief address, Senor Maseras called attention to the need of better schoolhouses, stating that he had been

for eight years a hygienic inspector, but that his recommendations had not been followed. He referred to the fact that teachers lived in the schoolhouses and took boarders, and that frequently pigs were staked out in the rooms. He was opposed to the co-education of the sexes, holding that the maintenance of such a system in the islands was impossible. His conservatism was further manifest in his endorsement of the opinions of Ravago and the *Centro Catolico*, and in his recommendation of an amendment to provide for a committee of censorship for the examination of text-books, in order that they might contain nothing obnoxious to the Catholic church or the friars.

Later in the course of the discussion Senor Sevilla was again heard. He referred to the fact that the law did not provide what qualifications Filipino teachers should have in order to secure positions, nor what disposition would be made of teachers who had acquired rights under the Spanish régime. He showed the basis of his remarks by explaining that under the Spanish system a teacher acquired a vested right to his position, and after a certain period of service was allowed to retire on a pension. He wished to know whether such rights would be respected by the United States, and also whether the American teachers would have charge of the schools and the native teachers be merely assistants, or whether native teachers would be continued as principals, the American teachers simply teaching English. In reply to his inquiries he was told that the selection of teachers was left to the superintendents, and whether the native teachers were continued as principals or as assistants would depend upon their qualifications; that the United States recognized no vested right to civil positions, although it was its policy to deprive no person of his position arbitrarily or without reason, as long as he served the government faithfully.

The brilliant Filipino lawyer, Felipe de Calderon, spoke, in the beginning of his address, in favor of the project to

create an advisory board to assist the general superintendent. His utterances on the main topic of the discussion were more extreme than the facts seemed to justify. He said that if the law did not contain a provision allowing priests to teach in the schools, within five days there would not be a child in attendance. His attention was, however, called to the fact that religious teaching had been prohibited for more than a year without any such results as he had predicted. Still he believed that public opinion would favor religious teaching in the schools; and he gave little weight to the provisions of the Malolos constitution, saying that it was never enforced. Referring to the section providing for a normal school, he inquired whether it was designed for women as well as for men. When told that it was for both, he stated that under existing conditions in the Islands a separate normal school for women would have to be provided, or no women would attend. In this there was more of prejudice than of prophetic vision. The fact of the admission of both sexes has not apparently hindered the attendance of either, and has caused no more embarrassment than appears in the normal schools of America.

The discussion of the school bill by volunteers from the general public was closed by Senor Pedro Serrano, who argued that the law should provide for the compulsory attendance of children who were not under the control of parents. In cases where there were parents, the desire to have their children educated would render such a provision unnecessary. He referred to the control exercised by the church over education during Spanish times, and its suppression of all reforms in the schools. With this church pressure removed he believed that the Filipino teacher would prove both willing and capable and would give good results. When questioned as to the advisability of the co-education of the two sexes, he replied that he not only thought it feasible, but that it would prove more expedient than the system followed heretofore. He expressed the

belief that the Spanish system rather conduced to immorality instead of tending to prevent it; and that the adoption of the American system would result in gaining for women the same freedom and the same respect that existed in Anglo-Saxon countries.

Several days after the close of this public hearing the school bill was taken up in a public session, amended, and discussed by members of the Commission. Professor Moses moved a number of amendments that were unanimously adopted. The final amendment to strike out the section already quoted, concerning the relation of the schools to the church, and insert a briefer form, did not meet the approval of the whole Commission. The section it was proposed to insert was in the following words:

"No teacher, or other person, shall teach the doctrines of any church, religious sect, or denomination, in any public school established or maintained under this act."

On this amendment Professor Moses spoke at length, calling attention in the beginning to the almost unanimous opposition which the Filipino speakers had offered to the section as printed in the bill under discussion. An important objection to the section in question was found in the fact that it drew a technical rather than a real line of separation between the church and the state. It provided for the religious instruction of pupils in the schoolhouse, but made a technical distinction between the hour in which such instruction might be given and the hours in which secular instruction might be given. He expressed the view that it would be desirable to make either a real separation or no separation. He referred to those portions of the instructions of the Commission relating to the separation of church and state, which provided emphatically that such separation should be "real, entire, and absolute," and affirmed that the separation provided by the section in question was not real, entire, or absolute; that it was a technical separation, and for that reason more

or less in violation of the instructions of the Commission. The purpose of his amendment was to establish here the same liberties, the same privileges, and the same freedom from ecclesiastical interference which had come, through long experience, to prevail in the United States. Such would be the logical course to pursue, and if friction resulted it would be possible to make variations and concessions as they might be found to be expedient. He suggested that the people of these islands, having submitted to the sovereignty of the United States, could properly demand that the conditions which had made life endurable, prosperous, and free in the United States should be established here. If these privileges were accorded them, there would be little ground for complaint on their part; for the American Union stands for the fullest degree of liberty that is enjoyed, or was ever enjoyed, by any great nation. It was a doubtful policy, therefore, to depart from the course which experience had shown to be a good one, and enter upon an experiment. This would be placing the Filipinos in a position which was directly opposed to their aspirations. It had been suggested that an amendment like the one here proposed would leave the schools deserted. The eagerness of the youth of the Islands to enter American schools, and the fact that where religious instruction had been excluded from the schools in Manila and elsewhere for more than a year, no such result had obtained, justified the statement that such fears were groundless. While compromises were sometimes necessary, the present proposed compromise had not been loudly called for anywhere, had not received any considerable support in any country. It had been tried for a short time in a certain State in the United States, and there abandoned.

Attention was called to the fact that the Filipinos themselves, when they had undertaken to set up an independent government, had given strong indications that they were in favor of such liberty as was sought to be introduced by the

proposed amendment. It was urged, from a practical standpoint, that the schools should be left free for purely educational purposes; that native teachers would have to be educated in English; that there would have to be various conferences between teachers and superintendents, and between teachers and teachers; and that for all these uses the school buildings would be required. Teachers needed them also in order to prepare for their work. It was contended that the step contemplated in the amendment advocated would be an easy one to take at the time, as practically everybody conceded it to be the logical and necessary step, considering the form of government it was proposed to establish. In conclusion the speaker stated that his amendment did not interfere with the functions of any church, or of any religion; that it was realized by him and by every thoughtful person that religion was a vital element in civilization, and that no one would be so unwise as to interfere in any way with the operation of that force upon which all rely to carry civilization to its highest and best form.

Judge Taft in supporting the original section concerning the relation of the church to the schools, or a merely verbal modification of it, referred to the formidable opposition to it that had been developed, and affirmed that in the difference of opinion among the Commissioners there was not the slightest religious prejudice; it was a question simply of school policy and general policy on which a difference existed. The decisions of the courts had sufficiently indicated that the Faribault system was not unconstitutional, and, although it might represent a departure from American customs, the different conditions prevailing in the Islands might justify its adoption. The United States had reached its present attitude on this question gradually, and he believed the best policy was to make the change here as little radical as possible within the instructions. As the Filipinos who had argued against the section represented

the liberal wing of the Catholic church, it would be unsafe to regard their views as expressing those of the great mass of the people on this point. As to the Americans who opposed the bill, he believed their views were influenced considerably by the possible additional difficulty in carrying on the schools. It was also possible that some few of the Americans were quite as open to the charge of religious prejudice as those whose influence they feared. He believed the position of the ecclesiastical authorities under the American government was so different that they could not abuse with impunity the privileges offered by this section.

Referring to the attitude of the *Centro Catolico de Filipinas*, Judge Taft affirmed that the propositions of that union were so utterly impossible that he did not believe the able and educated hierarchy of the church could have devised the making of them. The Catholics of America were intensely interested in the education of the Filipino people, and they would understand that, if the section as proposed was adopted, the Commission had gone as far as it could to reconcile the desires of sincere Catholics with the restrictions placed upon the Commission by its instructions. The fact that the patrons of the Liceo de Manila, a private, non-sectarian school, had petitioned to have religious instruction given in the school, was taken as indicating the real sentiment of the people in this matter. It was of the highest importance that the Filipino people should understand that the Commission had not been sent to the Islands to change the religion of anybody, and if they could be made to understand this by enacting the section in question, then it would be worth all the inconvenience or occasional friction between over-zealous priests and tactless teachers, which might possibly occur. If the section failed of its purpose, as it might, it would only be after our good faith in attempting to show these people that the American government and its representatives are

neither pro-protestant nor anti-catholic had been made manifest.¹

At the close of Judge Taft's speech a vote was taken on the debated section. The form providing for the introduction of the Faribault system was adopted, Taft, Worcester, and Wright voting for it; Ide and Moses, against it. In spite of this difference of opinion respecting this single feature of the proposed law, the bill in the form finally given to it was voted unanimously, and was the effective beginning of the organization of a system of public schools for the Philippine Islands.

It was provided that the primary instruction instituted under this law should be free; that the general superintendent should appoint a city superintendent of schools for Manila, the division superintendents, and such teachers and clerks as were authorized by law; that he should fix the salaries of the division superintendents and teachers within the limits prescribed by law; that he should determine the curriculum of primary, secondary, and other public schools; that he should divide the archipelago into not more than ten school divisions; that he should prescribe plans for the construction of schoolhouses; that he should make contracts for the purchase of school supplies authorized by law; and that he should have power to determine the towns in which English teachers, to be paid out of the Insular Treasury, should teach. The general superintendent was required to examine and pass upon all requisitions made for funds by division superintendents and submit them to the Chief Executive for transmission to the Commission. He was required, moreover, to exercise general supervision over the entire department. This law also provided for a superior advisory board of education composed of the general superintendent and four members to be appointed by the Commission, which should meet regularly once in two

¹ Minutes of the United States Philippine Commission (Public Session), January 11, 1901-January 21, 1901.

months, and special meetings might be called by the general superintendent.

The ninth section of the school law defines in detail the powers and duties of the division superintendent. He may appoint native teachers, and fix their salaries within limits prescribed by law. "He shall make careful investigations into the agricultural conditions existing in his division and shall make report thereon to the general superintendent of public instruction, with a view to aiding the general superintendent in making recommendations as to the places and number of the agricultural schools hereafter to be established. He shall see to it by personal visits and by requiring reports from the principal teacher of each school that the curriculum for primary and secondary schools prescribed by the general superintendent of public instruction is complied with. He shall make himself familiar with the supplies and text-books needed in each school in his division, and shall make report of the same at as early a date as possible, in order that they may be contracted for and furnished by the general superintendent. He shall appoint one-half of the local school board in each pueblo in his division. He shall have and maintain his residence and office in one of the large towns of his division, from which all the pueblos in his district can be most conveniently reached."

The local school board, one-half appointed by the division superintendent and the other half elected by the municipal council, holding office for two years, was given certain advisory powers. It might visit from time to time the schools of the pueblo and report bi-monthly to the division superintendent their condition and the attendance of pupils. It might recommend sites and plans to the municipal council for schoolhouses to be erected. It might adopt rules, subject to the supervision of the division superintendent, for assigning the pupils of the pueblo to the several schools, in case the pueblo had more than one school. It might

report annually to the municipal council the amount of money which should be raised by local taxation for school purposes. Whenever it might consider it necessary, it might report directly to the general superintendent as to the condition of the schools of the pueblo, and make such suggestions as might seem expedient.

This law provided that the English language, as soon as practicable, should be made the basis of all public school instruction, and that soldiers might be detailed as instructors until such time as they might be replaced by trained teachers. To supply the demand for trained teachers, authority was given to the general superintendent to obtain from the United States one thousand such teachers at monthly salaries of not less than seventy-five dollars and not more than one hundred and twenty-five dollars, the general superintendent to determine, within these limits, the salary of each teacher in accordance with the efficiency of the teacher in question and the importance of the position held.

Besides its general provisions, this law established three special schools. The first was a normal school, to be organized at Manila for the education of Filipino teachers. The second was a school of trades, which was also to be maintained at Manila. This was designed to instruct the Filipinos in the useful trades, to give them skill in working in wood and metals. The third was a school of agriculture, which was to be established in the island of Negros.

Before the enactment of the school law the Commission had assumed control of the schools that had come down from the Spanish régime or had been organized under the military authorities. To these it added, shortly after the first of September, 1900, a system of night schools. The first of these schools, organized on the initiative of the Commission, was opened in the district of Manila known as Sampoloc, and was maintained from 7:30 to 9 o'clock for three evenings in the week. The eagerness of many

mature persons to learn English and the large measure of success that attended the work of the first night school led to the early establishment of two other schools of a similar character, one in the walled city and one in Binondo. There were classes for women, taught by women, as well as classes for men.

The enrollment in the night schools increased very rapidly; the number of pupils rose in the course of a few weeks to over nineteen hundred. Many occupations were represented; there were clerks, merchants, newspaper reporters, bookbinders, salesmen, teachers, police officers, firemen, secretaries, mechanics, cigar makers, janitors, physicians, laborers, barbers, and persons from a variety of other callings. At first only the English language was taught; later other subjects were introduced, particularly history, arithmetic, and geography. Some of the schools had classes in bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, and telegraphy. Persons wishing to enter the civil service, or persons already employed in that service resorted to the night schools for the preparation necessary for their admission or promotion. Filipino teachers, knowing that English would ultimately be the language used in public instruction, took advantage of the facilities here offered to fit themselves to hold their positions under the new régime. The night schools that were subsequently established in provincial towns where American teachers had been stationed were attended by members of all classes. The municipal officers, and sometimes the governors of provinces, embraced this opportunity to acquire a knowledge of English.

Many of the teachers of English in the regular day schools were employed as teachers in night schools, but there were not enough of these available to meet the demand, and recourse was had to other persons, who, except for this work in the night schools, were not employed in teaching. In the summer of 1902, the idea prevailed in some quarters that the night schools had become unduly

expensive, and it was feared that in some instances, in the less important towns, teachers were receiving the stipulated fifteen dollars a month for teaching night school classes too small to justify the expenditure. On the 14th of July, 1902, a section was introduced into an appropriation bill that was intended to correct any abuse that might have arisen in the maintenance of classes with inadequate attendance. This law provided that no night school should be maintained in the city of Manila or elsewhere at the public expense, in which the average attendance should not be at least twenty-five pupils over the age of fourteen years. In this case the zeal for economy imposed too severe restrictions. There were circumstances in which a night school was needed, but where an average attendance of twenty-five might not be had. In some cases the attendance was unavoidably irregular, and a large and unwieldy number would have to be enrolled in order that the average attendance might reach the number required. Under this provision several of the night schools were discontinued. Whenever, with special effort, the attendance of a school was increased to meet the requirements of the law, the quality of the instruction naturally suffered deterioration in consequence. The law of October 8, 1902, applied a remedy in reducing the required average attendance. By this law the general superintendent was given power to establish night schools, but no night-school class might be maintained at the expense of the city of Manila or of the insular government that had not an average attendance of at least fifteen pupils over fourteen years of age. Hitherto the night schools had been conducted under administrative authority, but by this act they were given a strictly legislative status.

The law of October 8 divided the Archipelago into thirty-six school divisions. The city of Manila constituted one of these divisions. Except in a few instances where two provinces were united in one division, the boundaries

of the divisions were the same as the boundaries of the provinces. In four of the divisions, Benguet, Lepanto-Bontoc, Nueva Vizcaya, and Paragua, largely inhabited by uncivilized tribes, the respective governors acted, without additional compensation, as division superintendents. In each of the other divisions provision was made for a regularly appointed division superintendent. The annual salaries provided for the division superintendents ranged from one thousand five hundred to two thousand five hundred dollars, with three thousand dollars as the salary of the superintendent of the Manila schools.

Provision was made for secondary instruction by an act passed March 2, 1902. It was designed to make this an affair of the province, and the law was so framed as to give the provincial authorities freedom to determine the character of the instruction that should be given in the secondary schools. This was rendered necessary by the great variety of conditions existing in the different provinces. It was made the duty of the provincial board to provide, if it should deem it expedient, such school building or buildings in the province as might be necessary to be used for the free secondary instruction of pupils resident in the province, "such secondary instruction being understood to include, in addition to academic and commercial subjects, manual training, instruction in agriculture, and normal-school instruction."¹ Under this broad definition of secondary instruction it was possible for the provincial authorities to lay stress on those subjects that were more especially needed in the province in question, and by this the law was made applicable to all the various existing conditions. These secondary schools were to be maintained at the expense of the provincial treasury, and were subject to the supervision of the division superintendents and of the general superintendent. It might happen that the financial condition of the province would

¹ Public Laws enacted by the Philippine Commission, No. 372.

not justify the maintenance of a school of secondary instruction; in such a case the Commission might meet the expense of conducting such a school until such time as it should decide that the province might assume the obligation. If, for any reason, it should be determined that a secondary school should not be established in any given province, pupils from that province might be enrolled in a secondary school in Manila or in any province where such a school was maintained, the province supporting the school thus patronized being authorized to collect a tuition fee from the treasury of another province in which the pupil resided.

Some of the interior towns presented a peculiar problem. Few if any of the inhabitants knew any language but a native dialect. In view of the demands of other and more important towns, they could not be supplied by the insular government with American teachers, or with suitable Filipino teachers; they were too poor to offer effective attractions to teachers of any sort. There were no institutions within reach where their own youth might be trained to be teachers. It was clear that if they were entirely neglected their barbarism would perpetuate itself. As an amelioration of the situation, it was provided by law that the municipalities in question might expend from the school funds or from any municipal funds not otherwise appropriated forty pesos a month during the school year towards the support of two residents of the municipality at any public secondary school established under the department of public instruction. The municipalities included under this provision were those where no American public school teacher was maintained, or where there was no public school of secondary instruction. The persons thus supported should be one young man and one young woman, whose respective ages should be not less than fifteen nor more than twenty-five years, and whose parents should not be able to pay their expenses while attending a secondary

school. It was provided, moreover, that these persons should be appointed by the president of the municipality, with the approval of the majority of the members of the council, subject to confirmation after one month's attendance by the principal of the school in which they might be appointed to receive instruction. It was understood that the persons receiving this support would be trained for teachers, and their services, on due compensation, might be claimed by the municipality.

Under the Spanish régime, educational effort was directed to topics not especially important for the development of the material interests of society. This fact determined in a measure the policy of the American government. It became clear to the authorities very early that the theoretical teaching of the Spaniards should be supplemented by instruction in subjects immediately practical. To reach this end the first school law provided for the establishment of a school of agriculture, a school of trades, and a normal school. If the school of trades was not at the very beginning successful in interesting a large number of pupils, this was due mainly to a strong social prejudice against manual labor that existed in the Philippines, as well as in all other lands which had been long under Spanish dominion. A Filipino lad remarked on one occasion that the physical training required in a school of mechanical trades was quite appropriate for Americans who were strong in their arms, but was not appropriate for Filipinos who were strong in the head. This conceit and the aversion to manual labor developed by the example and teachings of the Spaniards and by a climate inducing lassitude and indolence made it necessary to approach the character which it was designed instruction in the Philippines should ultimately assume, by a somewhat round-about method. Before significant results with respect to any form of instruction could be achieved, an enthusiasm for education had to be awakened and the children led to acquire the habit of going to school. These

ends could not be reached by presenting, without alternative, teaching of a kind that ran counter to the notions and prejudices of that part of the people who had any interest whatsoever in the schools. A beginning was, therefore, made on the side of the Filipino's chief interest; and it was fortunate that this involved instruction on a subject of primary and fundamental importance.

The predominant ambition of the young Filipinos was to hold a clerkship under the government, and they naturally did not see how learning to work in wood and metals would advance them towards their desired object. But when it became necessary for the civil government to take over the telegraph lines that had been controlled by the military authorities, a school of telegraphy was established to prepare persons to become operators. Many students were enrolled as soon as the school was opened, and the number increased from week to week. Here was an opportunity for them to fit themselves for an occupation that approached closely the object of their ambition.

After the government printing plant had been established, it was determined to make use of it in teaching young Filipinos the art of printing, and to have instruction furnished under the actual conditions of effective work. With this end in view, the secretary of public instruction, who exercised a general supervision over the affairs of the public printing office, wrote to the several division superintendents of schools throughout the Archipelago, and asked them to recommend a certain number of boys to become apprentices in the bureau of public printing. It was made clear to them that the government would cause them to be instructed in the art of printing, and that it would provide for the most efficient of them opportunities for work in the public printing office. Yet even under these conditions it was found that some of the parents to whom the subject was presented entertained a strong prejudice against having their sons learn a trade involving manual labor. The

success, however, of some of the boys who applied and were accepted, and their subsequent promotion in the bureau of public printing, with reasonable compensation, helped to weaken this prejudice, and led to the acceptance, by some persons at least, of a more rational view of work. The prejudice, however, remained; and the government had to recognize that the wishes and ambitions of the people had much to do, in the beginning, in determining what form of instruction could be successfully given.

RESULTS OF THE WAR BETWEEN RUSSIA AND JAPAN.¹

BERNARD MOSES.

If it were designed that I should speak on this subject in my proper capacity as an historian, I would move to have this discussion postponed for fifty years. We need time to gather up the documents and observe the drift of the new tendencies. In European affairs all the factors are fairly well known; we have observed them in various combinations for more than two thousand years. European history may not furnish a basis for accurate scientific prediction, but it does enable us to make brilliant guesses. The Orient, however, is beginning to run a new course. It is developing social factors that have not been weighed and measured. Our attitude toward the Orient is not that of knowledge, but of interested expectation. This is the time to call out the prophets; for while the war is of our day the important results are all of the future. You have here David and Eli and Moses, but there is not a genuine prophet in the lot. Eli was only a judge, and David a killer of giants, with incidental devotion to poetry.

There are, however, a few facts that have come within the horizon of ordinary vision as a consequence of this war. One of these is that the Japanese can do certain other things as well as write poems to cherry-blossoms. Another

¹ Speech at the Unitarian Club dinner, September 18, 1905.

significant fact is that they have tasted the blood of a foreign enemy. If we may judge from similar instances in the past, this will undoubtedly strengthen their appetite. For several centuries both the Japanese and the Chinese were willing to live in peace with all the world. They asked no favors, and were slow to resent insults and encroachments. They thought war unprofitable, and magnified intellectual cultivation, and were devoted to the arts of peace. When the Japanese found his honor assailed, he undertook to right the wrong by killing himself. At last he seems to have learned the Christian lesson and adopted the Christian method of killing the other fellow. Drawn away from her policy of reserve and exclusiveness, Japan has taken her first step in imitation of Western aggression. From the strictest self-imposed isolation, she has made her first great move under a policy of expansion. The real significance of this is found not in what has been actually won, but in the stimulated appetite for winning. As I read the history of the world, I do not discover strong nations, after the first conquest, renouncing all thought and desire for a further advance. Conquest breeds conquest. Victory puts iron in the blood. A nation that has overthrown a great enemy is transformed. It is lifted where its vision sweeps a wider horizon. The devil, when he took Jesus up into a high mountain and offered him all the kingdoms of the earth and the glory of them, was a great psychologist; he knew the supreme temptation. The fortunes of war have taken the Japanese up into a high mountain, from which they can behold all the kingdoms of the East. It is not to be supposed, however, that they are conscious of a determination to enter upon a course of conquest; but it is not the conscious decisions or determinations that fix the career and fate of nations; it is what lies back of our conscious proposals, in the instincts and unrevealed impulses of the national spirit, that shapes the history of the race. The conscious design of a nation this

year does not determine its conduct in the years to come. Few nations have entered upon a career of territorial expansion with a complete and clearly conceived program of their undertaking. The first step is usually taken to secure a needed advantage or to redress a grievance; but the first step reveals the opportunity, and the opportunity makes the policy.

Few nations in the years of their undiminished virility have ever had a more magnificent opportunity than that now presented to Japan. China has been placed under such an obligation as can be fulfilled only by giving to Japan not merely moral support, but also material support in her great undertakings. In rescuing Manchuria from Russia, Japan performed a task which was entirely beyond the powers of China in her present state, and which placed Japan, even without a formal treaty, at the head of an Oriental union. It is not a union of law, but a union founded in the reality of things. The leadership in this union belongs to Japan, not only by virtue of her military achievements, but also by reason of her power to use the appliances of Western civilization. The Chinese have already practically assented to this leadership. The Japanese are the accepted masters of the rising generation of China. Already there are about five thousand Chinese students in Tokyo alone, and Japanese teachers in great numbers are distributed throughout the length and breadth of the Chinese Empire.

The Chinese are not slow to appreciate the significance of this situation. They know that the hand of every Western nation is against them. They know that if these nations could have laid aside their unworthy jealousies they would have been glad to spoil China even to the dismemberment of the empire. They will not be slow to discern that their safety is in force, either the individual force of their own government or the force of an alliance in which their nation is a member. They are not fooled

by America's failure to participate in the partition schemes which the other leading nations entertained. They have rather unmistakable evidence that we do not love the Chinese as a people, but that we have a yearning for their trade; in fact, that we would prefer their trade to their territory. They have many reasons for believing that Japan is the only nation they can safely trust. There is thus presented an opportunity for an understanding with China, an opportunity that will make for Japan a policy favorable to further expansion, unless all the traditions of victorious nations are violated. The alliance between Great Britain and Japan emphasizes the probability that this policy will be carried out. In her madness Russia is quite likely to break over her borders and interfere with the recognized rights of England. The first clash between Great Britain and Russia will leave the Japanese free to move upon Vladivostok and to appropriate the maritime province of Siberia.

Japan's new position and the prospect that China will follow her lead are likely to cause Western nations to lay aside their plan to plunder China. They appear, in fact, to have already postponed the execution of their design to carve up the Chinese territory and apportion it among themselves. Some persons are virtuous by necessity; and that seems to be the state of the Christian nations at present in relation to China. They are restrained from carrying out their schemes for wholesale robbery. They are compelled by the heathen to manifest some regard for Christian principles.

Whenever a nation shows itself capable of warding off invasion and control by an alien race, as Japan has done and as China will do, a distinct gain for the enlightenment of the world is achieved. It is sometimes inevitable that a people of one of the less developed races should fall under the rule of a nation of another race. This, though inevitable, is a misfortune arising from lack of

civilization. It is unfortunate, because it creates a problem which has thus far remained entirely without a solution, the problem of the relation of the less developed peoples to the dominant nation of the superior race. The rise of Japan to be a self-defending power, and the prospective rise of China to an equal rank with the great nations are facts to be regarded with great satisfaction as limiting the area of these questionable relations between peoples of different races. As one of its results, the war has confirmed the development of a great Oriental state, or a combination of Oriental states, that will be able to maintain complete sovereignty over its whole territory. This will be a distinct gain for civilization. If Russia had won in this conflict she would have extended her sphere of influence over Japan. Japan has, therefore, not been fighting simply to defeat Russia, but rather to show the world that her territory is not to be a sphere of influence for any European power. Another consequence of the war is the drawing together of Japan and China, and the awakening of China to demonstrate the same proposition with respect to her territory. The victory of Japan secures the territorial integrity of China, and establishes the mastery of Asiatics in Eastern Asia. This mastery will probably involve the ultimate withdrawal of all European claims to spheres of influence over Chinese lands.

It will be a great achievement if by the rise of an important Oriental alliance a powerful temptation is removed from Christian nations. They have wished to spoil and dismember China, and it may be expected that they will now assume an appearance of virtue, and pretend that they were not at the point of doing a dastardly and wicked act. It may thus be expected that the victory of Japan will be followed by an awakening of the conscience of the Christian nations, when they find, as a consequence of the war, that they are shut out from vast anticipated opportunities for profitable wickedness.

Perhaps the most important result of the war as yet in view is the rise of that international sentiment which compelled the cessation of hostilities and urged the formation of the treaty of peace. I recall no instance in all time when so large a number of prominent persons in all the leading nations was so thoroughly and effectively of one mind as in this case. This universal sentiment made the opportunity. The freedom of the United States from all 'entangling alliances,' made its President the only person who could properly issue the call to peace when the crisis came; and this call would have been ineffectual had it not been supported by a powerful international public opinion. For the first time in the history of the world, in fact, there was manifested a public opinion that reached round the world. Hitherto the nations have pursued diverse ideals; they have worked at cross purposes; they have sought almost exclusively their own individual ends, and have taken pride in the roundaboutness of their methods. In this they have hindered the growth of the common sentiments and mutual sympathies which are requisite to the development of an effective and generally recognized system of international law. It is not to be supposed that the unanimity attained in this case will abide without interruptions, but the fact that it has existed for the accomplishment of a great purpose breaks the way for future recurrences of the same phenomenon and indicates that a long step has been taken toward international union on important matters of common concern.

The revival of China under the leadership of Japan is likely to interest particularly the people of the United States. With even less of prophetic vision than either David or Eli possesses, it is possible to see that the day is not far off when China will ask to be placed in the list of the most favored nations; and when the request is made it will be granted. This will make it embarrassing for the United States to attempt to erect or maintain a barrier of

exclusion in opposition to the wishes of the Chinese Government. Then in order to preserve friendly relations with the Far Eastern nations it will be necessary to extend to them the same privileges and courtesies that we extend to the European nations; and under this condition the maintenance in the United States of the present scale of incomes and expenditures for the great mass of the people will be difficult, if not impossible. Our standard of living as compared with that of all other nations will be seen to be, in general, extravagant; and to the equalizing forces that come from Europe with the flood of immigrants there will be added other equalizing forces from the side of the Orient. The situation will thus present an accumulation of forces tending to knock out the props of our artificial standard of living, and equalize our condition with what is fast becoming the uniform condition of the enlightened parts of the world. Against these equalizing forces the labor organizations and the makers of tariffs are waging a vigorous warfare, but they have to face serious obstacles in the exportation of capital to the regions of cheaper labor, in the growing immigration to the United States, and in the natural additions to the number of inhabitants who find it more and more difficult to secure for themselves lucrative positions in a population of increasing density. Yet in spite of high tariffs and trades-unions we are apparently on the eve of a period, when, by the intimacy of their commercial and other relations, the civilized nations will be drawn toward the acceptance of a common standard of living. The world standard will be reached by lowering that of the United States and lifting up that of some of the other nations; and the first phases of this transformation are already visible in many parts of the world.

The entrance of China and Japan to full standing among the powers will give new prominence to the unsolved problem of the relation between alien races engaged in the same sphere of practical affairs. This problem has

hitherto arisen chiefly where a nation of European stock has dominated communities of the less developed races. It has appeared in India, in Java, in the Philippines, and in the Southern States of the American Union. England and Holland have insisted on the entire supremacy of the white man, with comparatively little toleration for the ideals and traditions of the subject people. The people of the United States have set out with the fundamental idea of equality, which involves the abolition of race-prejudice, in spite of the fact that it is the preservation of this prejudice, or of race-respect, that has kept the English stock free from the contamination of barbarian blood, and given it its position of power in the world.

Whether we consider the relations between the different races in India, Java, the Philippines, or the Southern States, there is everywhere essentially the same problem presented; and when the greater freedom of intercourse is established between the United States and the Far East, another phase of the same problem will be brought to the attention of the inhabitants of European descent in America. Thus, while as a result of the war the 'white peril' no longer looms for the Chinese or the Japanese on their horizon, the peoples of the West are brought face to face as never before with the far-reaching and undetermined issues involved in the closer relations of Europeans and Asiatics.

REPORT ON THE BANCROFT LIBRARY.¹

REUBEN G. THWAITES.

To the President and Honorable Board of Regents of the University of California:—In accordance with your invitation, I have just completed a careful examination of the H. H. Bancroft Library, with a view to ascertaining its condition and, so far as may be, its marketable value, and beg leave to report as follows:

The collection is contained in an isolated two-story brick building, apparently of slow-burning construction, near the corner of Valencia and Army streets. The building is said to be frequently aired; but I found it extremely musty—and while the library is still in good condition, another decade of neglect in this environment will undoubtedly work to the irreparable injury from damp of very much of its contents, particularly in newspaper files, mounted manuscripts, and volumes of pasted newspaper seraps, which classes of matter are peculiarly susceptible to the ravages of mildew and insects.

I had read numerous published and manuscript descriptions of this library, particularly the accounts thereof in Hubert Howe Bancroft's own works—*Essays and Miscellany* (chaps. xv-xviii), and *Literary Industries* (particularly chaps. viii, x, xxi, xxiii). These had prepared me for a considerable collection; nevertheless, I approached the present task of appraisal with the fear that, although doubt-

¹ Submitted to the President and Regents of the University, by Reuben G. Thwaites, Superintendent of the Wisconsin Historical Library, October 14, 1905. See page 188.

less important, the library had, in the natural enthusiasm of the owner, probably been over-estimated by him. But I arise from my examination with the firm conviction that Mr. Bancroft's several statements have in no sense been exaggerations of the fact. In the main, his range of collection was the vast region of the Pacific slope, from Alaska down through the Central American States; but he also assiduously collected material upon the entire Rocky Mountain district—Montana, Utah, Wyoming, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, and Western Texas. There is also much material—of very great value, although not so inclusive—upon Louisiana under Spanish dominion, and most of the islands of the West Indies: the latter an interesting side excursion, of which no account has been taken in his published descriptions of the library.

I take profound satisfaction in reporting that the collection is found to be astonishingly large and complete, easily first in its own field, and taking high rank among the famous general collections of Americana, such as exist at Harvard University, the Boston Public Library, the Library of Congress, the New York State Library, and the Wisconsin Historical Library. Mr. Bancroft's services to American historical scholarship, in amassing this remarkable array of manuscript and printed sources, entitle his name to be mentioned in connection with those of Force, Draper, Sparks, Prince, George Bancroft, and other great collectors of materials for American history. You will, I am sure, hardly expect me here to enter into anything approaching a detailed description of the Bancroft Library—such a task would require the dimensions of a bulky pamphlet. You have but invited me to give you an appraisal, and this infers an account of the property couched only in general terms.

I. MANUSCRIPTS.

When soliciting the purchase of the library by the State of California, in 1886-87, Mr. Bancroft estimated that he

had accumulated 1,200 volumes of manuscripts. This is, however, a curious under-estimate; possibly he included only those that were bound. I think, however, that of unbound manuscripts of importance, scattered through the library in shoals, there are sufficient to make perhaps an additional 200 or 300 stout folio volumes.

These manuscripts are, as a rule, of the first importance. So wide is their range that it will be a difficult task even to classify them, and I can here convey but a suggestion as to their character. In the first place, there are numerous manuscript books, such as missals, service books, and early grammars and dictionaries of aboriginal languages. Many of these are valuable chiefly as curiosities—the sort of material suitable for a bibliographical museum, which of itself would obviously be desirable at the University. Also valuable for such a museum are the numerous parchment broadsides—papal bulls and rescripts, governmental proclamations, royal edicts, land deeds, etc., many of them bearing rare and interesting seals. Such documents are often of much historical value, and many could be utilized in connection with the study of paleography, a branch of learning for which we have in our country a relatively small store of material, necessitating the treasuring of what little we possess.

In manuscript material for direct original study of the particular field covered by the Bancroft histories, the collection is surprisingly large. Extremely important in this department are the archives of the Spanish missions. These are, for the most part, apparently careful transcripts of the original mission record books; but there are also many of the original records themselves;—for instance, those of the old San Francisco mission—and these are supplemented by numerous letters and other documents. So far as I can judge, from the amount of time at my command, the mission records appear to be at least fairly complete. When to these manuscripts are added the vast mass of printed

ecclesiastical material, in the Bancroft collection, it is seen that from this library can for the first time be prepared that great desideratum, a satisfactory study—historical, economic, and social—of the Franciscan and Jesuit coast missions. Closely associated with the mission archives, for purposes of research, are the original presidio records, of which there is a large and interesting collection.

There is also much manuscript material upon Spanish governmental and commercial affairs in North and Central America, and relative to the later Mexican régime. Accounts and letter-books of Russian, Canadian, and American fur companies are numerous. We have here consular papers, originals and transcripts of diaries of early American trappers, traders, overland pioneers, and gold hunters, and the log books of early trading craft—in fact, valuable miscellaneous papers bearing upon every phase of life in the Rockies and upon the Coast. Preëminent in this field, are the very remarkable collections of M. G. Vallejo (50 folio volumes), J. B. Alvarado, Thomas O. Larkin, A. M. Osio, Juan Bandini, A. F. Coronel, Pio Pico, Manuel Castro, I. M. Amador, and Benjamin Hayes—to mention but a few of those absorbed into the Bancroft collection—all of them incomparable store-houses of contemporary Mexican and American letters, accounts, and other documentary material, giving the very heart of California life during the Americanizing process. Obviously these will grow in value as the years pass.

Of great practical importance, also, are several hundreds of the dictated narratives of California and other Rocky Mountain pioneers, some of them covering hundreds of foolscap pages. The historical investigator soon learns to view such personal statements with becoming caution, as generally prepared in the declining years of the narrators, as more or less colored by prejudice, and weakened by faulty perspective. Nevertheless, a fair conclusion may generally be reached in the court of history by striking a

mean between the conflicting testimony of a cloud of witnesses; especially when, running parallel to this, exists such a mass of corrective contemporary documents as is contained in the Bancroft collection. Most of the actors in the drama of Pacific Coast pioneering have now passed away, so that these apparently careful records of their own statements constitute, with all their possible error, a really priceless possession to the historians of this district.

As incidentally illustrating the wide grasp of Mr. Bancroft's energy as a collector, I was interested in stumbling across several large bundles of important documents bearing upon the Spanish dominion in Louisiana, a field of collection distinctly out of his domain. In short, wherever one turns in the library, manuscripts of often very considerable value appear in bound form, tied up into bundles, or slipped into manila envelopes, until the searcher fairly gasps in astonishment at the enterprise and persistence of the man who could gather into his own possession so comprehensive and far-reaching an accumulation of contemporary records.

These 1,400 or 1,500 volumes of manuscripts, of which about 600 appear to bear strictly upon California, are in fact priceless. I hesitate to place upon them a market value. To such an institution, however, as the Library of Congress, which aims at a general collection of Americana, it is, I think, a conservative estimate to say that they would be considered as worth at least \$80,000; this would be exclusive of the dictated statements of the pioneers, which might appear to be of too local a character for an Eastern collection. But to California, the natural home of the Bancroft Library, the value is obviously far greater—if you will, any sum available to that end. In my judgment it would be a serious blow to historical scholarship upon the entire Pacific Coast, for the State of California to allow this material to go elsewhere.

The Draper Manuscript Collection, in the Wisconsin

Historical Library, numbers but 400 folio volumes, covering the origin of trans-Alleghaney settlement, a field geographically much more restricted than that represented in the Bancroft collection. Yet it annually attracts large numbers of graduate students in history, economics, and social science, involves a very considerable daily correspondence with genealogical investigators in all parts of the country, and has added immensely to the general reputation of the library. Wisconsin could probably not be induced even to estimate the marketable value of this unique collection, even were its sale possible; but rather than lose it, we should be willing to sacrifice any sum whatever, that the Wisconsin legislature might be induced to appropriate. From this statement, it will be seen that my estimate of the cash value of the Bancroft collection is conservative.

II. GENERAL PRINTED SOURCES.

Mr. Bancroft fortified his collection with a very considerable array of the great printed sources more or less affecting his wide geographical field. For studying the Old World roots of Spanish-American affairs, the library contains such important and expensive sets as are exemplified by the *Coleccion de los decretos y ordénes*, the *Coleccion de Documentos Inéditos*, the *Reales Ordénes*, the works of Mendoza, *Las Siete Partidas*, and the *Diarios* of the Cortes. These volumes are scattered through the library, but I believe the stretches to be complete. The sets of United States government documents (chiefly in sheep bindings), *Early Laws*, *Congressional Globe*, and *American State Papers*, apparently are complete between 1805 and 1895. When it is recollected that the University of California's set of these now highly prized publications is weak, and that Mr. Bancroft's constitute, I should judge, among the best half dozen documentary collections in the country, the importance of utilizing his volumes for filling gaps in the General Library will be appreciated.

I should say that the collection of leading Mexican official and historical sets is probably complete—it certainly is voluminous. His sets of laws, journals, debates, transactions of learned societies, etc., of Central America and the various American states and Canadian provinces within his field of collection, are generally in excellent condition; and there is also considerable material of this character bearing upon the West Indies and Brazil.

Early voyages are prominent features of the Bancroft library. I find upon its shelves the numerous and costly sets of most of the great editors and voyagers: Malte-Brun, Hakluyt, Pinkerton, Saint-Martin, Pieter Vander Aa, Kruksenstern, Wilkes, Burney, Richarderie, La Harpe, Langsdorff, Lisiansky, Kotzebue, Cook, Roquefeuil, Perit-Thouars, Beechy, Vancouver, La Pérouse, Meares, etc.; and such other famous collections as the *Annales des Voyages* and *Lettres Édifiantes*. In short, this collection of voyages—works always eagerly sought by students of history—is undoubtedly one of the best and most valuable now extant in America. It was interesting, for instance, to find among his rarities the first (1625) edition of *Purchas, his Pilgrimes*, now worth several hundred dollars.

The maps, atlases, and cosmographies are especially numerous. Not only does one discover here practically all of the celebrated geographies of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, but there is a collection of some 1,200 loose maps, chiefly bearing upon the Pacific Coast of America and the Gulf of Mexico, that is surprisingly rich in rarities. In addition to these are the French and British admiralty charts, and the United States and Russian coast charts within the same field; also about 50 roller maps—state, county, and local—some of them early and rare.

The collection of general printed sources, as above outlined, some of which are available for the University's General Library, as distinct from the Bancroft Library, is probably worth at least \$25,000. Portions thereof could not now be bought in open market at any price.

III. NEWSPAPER FILES, PERIODICALS, TRANSACTIONS, AND SCRAP BOOKS.

Newspaper files are among the most valuable sources for the economic, social, and political phases of history. The largest collections now extant in America, are those of the Library of Congress and the Wisconsin Historical Library—the latter containing 15,000 bound volumes, and the former possibly a few more. The Bancroft Library embraces the equivalent of something over 5,000 volumes, of which 500 or 600 are already bound, the others being tied up in bundles upon the shelves. The majority of these journals range from about 1868 to 1886; but piled in an unassorted heap upon the first floor, are about three cords of miscellaneous Pacific Coast and Rocky Mountain papers, ranging from January 1, 1887, to about 1895.

The California branch of the collection includes the earliest as well as the most important files; among them the *California Star* (1847), *Alta Californian* (1849–1885), *Sacramento Daily Union* (75 volumes, 1856–1871), *San Francisco Bulletin* (vol. I, no. 1, Oct. 8, 1865 through 1885), *San Francisco Call* (1863–1884), *Californian* (1847–1848), *California Farmer* (1860–1881), *Advocate* (1864–1880), and *Chronicle* (1868–1885). There are also upon the shelves such files as those of the *Salt Lake Tribune* (1871–1879) and *Telegraph* (1868); *Carson City Nevada Tribune* (1873–1880); *Denver Tribune*, *Miners' Gazette*, *Rocky Mountain News*, *Rocky Mountain Herald* and *Times*, and notable journals in Alaska, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Mexico.

The sets of periodical literature are numerous and important. Not only do we here find many of the standard popular and specialized sets, all of them valuable in filling gaps in the General Library, but there are a large collection of costly Mexican and Spanish sets, seldom seen in the United States. Among the 550 Mexican volumes of this character—many of them of an official or semi-official character, and thus especially valuable as sources—may be cited

the *Diario de Avisos*, *Le Vox de Mexico*, *El Universal*, *El Constitucional*, *El Mensaje*, *El Pajaro Verde*, *El Eco Nacional*, *Diario Oficial*, and *El Monitor Republicano*.

In this connection may be mentioned many valuable sets of transactions of learned societies and institutions in North and Central America, especially those containing monographs bearing upon the history, resources, and commerce of the Pacific Slope.

An interesting and eminently practical feature of the Bancroft Library is the collection of classified newspaper and magazine scraps touching upon its particular field. Some 300 volumes, prominent among them the Hayes Collection, are either bound or mounted on manila sheets ready for binding; and there are also large masses of similar scraps in loose form, thrust into manila envelopes. These scraps are an asset of considerable practical value to scholars, and in time should be carefully indexed for ready reference.

I estimate the marketable value of the newspapers, periodicals, transactions, and scrap books of classified printed matter, at \$50,000.

IV. EARLY IMPRINTS, AND OTHER RARE BOOKS.

It is difficult to differentiate these from other classes in the library. Mr. Bancroft has collected into one tier of shelves some 400 volumes under the general label, "Rare Books." But other books, pamphlets, and broadsides, properly coming under this head, are, under his alphabetical arrangement by authors, scattered throughout the library. However, considering only this special collection of rarities, culled by himself, we find them consisting chiefly of bibliographical curiosities, specimens of early Pacific Coast and Spanish-American printing, and material for the study of early linguistics. I have no reason whatever to doubt his published statement (see *Literary Industries*, p. 112), that these selected examples cost him from \$35 to \$800 each—a

value surely much enhanced since he acquired them. It would, I am sure, not be unfair to place upon them—although many of these examples would now be considered priceless by scholars—an average trade value of \$50 each, a total of \$20,000.

V. MATERIAL IN SPECIAL FIELDS OF STUDY.

This extraordinary collection is of course richest in manuscripts and in local history material—by local history, meaning the annals of the several states and territories embraced in the great region which he sought to cover. Nevertheless there is here a vast mass of data available for several other fields of human study, more or less related to history. In the department of American ethnology, particularly the aborigines of the trans-Missouri, the Pacific States, Alaska, Mexico, and the Central American States, the opening of this collection to general research will be an incalculable boon, for there is much therein that has not heretofore been available. The study of American aboriginal linguistics is certain, from the unlocking of this long-closed storehouse, to receive a new impetus. The collection will prove a revelation to scholars who wish to enter this broad field, for the mass of manuscript and printed material thereon is simply astonishing. We have here, also, opportunities for original research along many other lines—exploration, naval and military affairs, colonization, missions and general ecclesiastical interests, political development, the first fruits of scientific inquiry, the beginnings of literature and other arts: in short, the growth of culture in Western North America and along the shores of the Gulf of Mexico and the Carribean Sea, during four centuries of the civilizing process.

This special material, exclusive of that previously enumerated, I should consider worth in the book markets of the world, say \$20,000.

VI. CALIFORNIA PRINTED MATERIAL.

Much of Mr. Bancroft's valuable material for the history of California has already been alluded to under previous classes, such as the priceless records of the Spanish missions and presidios; the mammoth collections made by Vallejo, Larkin, Alvarado, Hayes, and others; files of the best and now excessively rare California newspapers and magazines; the wealth of newspaper scrap books; and, bibliographically curious, most of the first impressions from the earliest California presses at Monterey and elsewhere. There have also been previously touched upon the several hundreds of dictated narratives of leading California pioneers—of great practical service, locally, but which I have preferred not to appraise as a cash asset, for the reason that they probably have small marketable value outside of the state.

In addition to this great mass of manuscript and printed California sources, there is a surprisingly complete collection of printed books and pamphlets relative to the state—journals and debates of constitutional conventions and legislatures, state and local public documents of every sort, books and pamphlets printed in California, travels and descriptions, directories, publications of educational and religious institutions and learned societies, a shoal of state and local histories, statistical data in a hundred forms, miscellaneous leaflets innumerable, portraits of pioneers—in brief, practically everything printed in or about the commonwealth, local or general. All of which is probably complete up to 1887, and fairly representative of later publications to 1895.

This comprehensive collection is of itself worth \$50,000 at a low estimate; for probably no state in the Union, outside of Massachusetts and Wisconsin, has been so carefully gleaned for historical purposes. The possession of this California material alone, places the Bancroft Library on a par, from the local standpoint, with the best state historical collections extant.

VII. OTHER LOCAL HISTORY MATERIAL.

The Bancroft Library is of course not as rich for any of the other states and countries in its special field, as for California; local opportunities for collection were obviously greater here. Nevertheless, so wide was the theatre of its owner's activities, that the total mass of local history material outside of California—more particularly for Mexico and the Western American states, with rather surprising excursions into the West Indies—is quite remarkable.

The Mexican material of this character is probably as comprehensive as could be found on the shelves of any one library in that country—possibly it is even more numerous. It appears to include all of the standard histories and chronicles like those of Zamacois, Orozco y Berra, Alaman, and Bustamane; and such early chronicles as Bernal Diaz, Cavo, Clavigero, Cortés, Herrera, Las Casas, De Laet, Garcilasso de la Vega, Sortozano, and Solis. A collection of over 200 bound volumes of rare and often extremely valuable pamphlets is noticeable as one feature of the Mexican department.

In general, these local history collections are similar in scope and desirability to that already described under California, and the total bulk is naturally much greater. I estimate its market value at \$55,000.

VIII. CATALOGUES AND INDICES.

Highly desirable assets in connection with the Bancroft Library are the several manuscript catalogues of and indices to the collection. To facilitate the preparation of the Bancroft histories, its owner had prepared by his assistants several ready-reference lists of this character. During the quarter of a century occupied in making and using this collection, these labor-saving devices took on different forms, the fruits of accumulating experiences:

(a) A card catalogue of books, pamphlets, and newspaper files, is contained in a cupboard on the second floor. The size of these cards is not that now used by librarians, and the terminology is somewhat out of date; but for the time being, until a catalogue can be prepared along modern lines, this will be found fairly useful in the administration of the collection.

(b) Two large blank-books, ledger size, contain a one-line finding-list of the library—Vol. I being an alphabetical arrangement by authors, up to about 1880; Vol. II, a supplemental list of like character, up to about 1882.

(c) In a similar blank-book is a list of the newspaper files, with (in most cases) an apparently careful enumeration of the actual dates of the individual issues in each set. The entries are chiefly in lead pencil, and the arrangement appears to be irregular; but it is not difficult to use, and the list will be found serviceable in checking up the papers preparatory to binding and scientifically cataloguing.

(d) Two large cupboards on the first floor are filled with a classified card index, under brief subject headings, to the principal contents of the books and pamphlets in the collection. This work appears to have been done with care and judgment. The cards approximate the present library standard; they can easily be arranged vertically in trays, and at once be made available to students. The preparation of this index has undoubtedly cost a large sum of money, and will prove an important time-saving invention to those using the library.

(e) Three large ledger volumes are filled with manuscript notes upon the cartography of Mexico and of the Pacific Coast generally. The method was curiously laborious—that of alphabetically recording every geographical name found on each of the old maps, and tracing changes in spelling, location, etc. For purposes of detailed cartographical study, of the analytic order, these painstaking notes are surely of considerable practical value.

(f) It was the custom of the Bancroft Library staff to prepare notes—sometimes in outline, but often in detail—upon all imaginable data that might possibly be needed in the histories they were writing. Generally these were upon strips of foolscap of varying length. After being used by the compilers of the books, this skeleton material was either mounted on manila sheets ready for binding, or stowed away in manila envelopes, upon which were penciled memoranda as to the contents, the envelopes being also numbered to accord with their respective subject cards in the index described above, under (d). These envelopes are to be found in all portions of the library. They should be carefully examined, and the slips preserved and systematically arranged and perhaps mounted; it seems likely that in time they will be considered useful to many.

(g) Another form of rough note-making was the mounting of newspaper and magazine scraps upon manila sheets. Those thought by Mr. Bancroft to be worth binding have already been described under Newspaper Scrap-Books; there is still a considerable number stowed in manila envelopes, together with the foolscap notes already described under (f). All should be preserved, and eventually arranged in better condition.

Despite the great cost and considerable practical value of these several manuscript catalogues and indices, in a working library of this character, they obviously are of little use save to the purchaser of the entire Bancroft collection, hence would bring small returns at any sale whereat the library were sold piecemeal. I have, therefore, thought it best not even to attempt to appraise them for the present purpose; it is sufficient if we consider them merely as desirable makeweights.

NUMERICAL STRENGTH.

Mr. Bancroft's own estimate of the size of his Library, fifteen years ago (Ms. letter to A. R. Spofford, October 21, 1890), was as follows:

Printed books and pamphlets	40,000
Volumes of newspapers	4,000
Maps, atlases, engravings, etc.	2,000
Original manuscripts	3,700
Copied manuscripts	300
	<hr/>
	50,000

As he collected in a desultory manner for about five years after that date, his printed books and pamphlets now probably number 43,000. His newspaper volumes (bound and unbound) will, I think, number somewhat over 5,000. The cartographical estimate is substantially correct. But his estimate of the manuscripts perplexes me; for besides the very large collection of important unbound papers, we have some 1,200 bound volumes (generally stout folios), and these must contain far more than an average of 100 manuscripts each—I should say that there must be fully 125,000 of what may legitimately be styled manuscripts.

DUPLICATES.

It is quite impossible at the present juncture, prior to a detailed checking up, to arrive at any close estimate of the duplicates. Mr. Bancroft often bought large collections *en bloc*, besides purchasing freely at auctions from such great Spanish-American lots as the Andrade-Maximilian collection (Leipsic, 1869), the famous London sale of the same year, the E. G. Squier collection (1876), the Caleb Cushing sale (1879), and the Ramirez sale (London, 1880). During the most active period of his purchases (1868-1882), he necessarily bought and otherwise accumulated duplicates, and these he several times weeded from his shelves. Some of the duplicates he placed aside, and marked as such; others, I have found still upon the shelves. Again, it is highly probable that the University General Library already possesses, especially of modern Californiana, many of the more easily obtainable volumes in the Bancroft Library.

The final checking is sure to reveal a considerable duplicate collection, among them some very great rarities. These will be of a character readily salable to libraries and other collectors of Americana. It is, in my judgment, a safe estimate to value them at \$15,000—provided care is used, and time allowed, in disposing of them. Thrown into the auction room, or sold *en bloc* to dealers, they probably would not net more than half that sum. Perhaps I may be permitted, out of my own experience, to make the suggestion that the library could most profitably utilize these duplicates in effecting exchanges with other libraries, along the line of the Bancroft collection. Further, it will doubtless be found desirable, in the administration of the latter, to preserve therein many volumes duplicated in the General Library.

RECAPITULATION OF APPRAISAL.

I Manuscripts (exclusive of dictated narratives, unappraised)	\$80,000
II General Printed Sources	25,000
III Newspaper files, periodicals, transactions, and newspaper scrap-books	50,000
IV Early imprints and rare books	20,000
V Material in special fields of study (not local history)	20,000
VI California material	50,000
VII Other local history material	55,000
Catalogues and indices	Unappraised
	<hr/>
	\$300,000
Duplicates available for sale or exchange, and to be considered an offset	\$15,000

If, as I am informed, Mr. Bancroft's estimate still remains at \$250,000, the same as in 1887, I consider it a moderate one for the present day; in all probability, it is based upon his knowledge of what the material cost him. But Americana is advancing rapidly in value; prices obtainable in 1887 might in many cases be doubled in 1905. And if, as I am still further informed, Mr. Bancroft now

offers to donate to the University the difference between his estimate of value (\$250,000), and his asking price (\$150,000), I am clearly of the opinion that the Bancroft Library is a bargain which, in the interest of Pacific Coast scholarship, should be taken advantage of.

SUGGESTIONS.

Assuming that the University will acquire the Bancroft Library, I trust that I may be permitted to close with a few suggestions relative to the future of the collection.

A great library of this highly specialized character should, I think, be separately administered, as is the President White Library at Cornell. It is going to take time, patience, and much skill to get this vast mass of material into good working order, available for the specialists who no doubt will soon wish to examine it. Library workers who are especially trained to the administration of maps, manuscripts, and other historical and economic sources, should if possible at once be placed in charge. Such a collection could not, in my judgment, attain its highest measure of usefulness in the hands of any not qualified in this department.

The Bancroft Library will at once attract to the University a body of graduate students in American and Spanish-American history and allied studies, who are to find here a practically unique collection of material of the highest order of excellence. Facilities for this sort of graduate work will be unsurpassed elsewhere in the United States. It would be wise, not only to keep the collection well abreast of the times, along its present lines, but, as means and opportunity permit, to extend its scope, looking towards the eventual accumulation at Berkeley of a great storehouse of material for all of Spanish America, thus making this the natural centre of that vast and fruitful field of study, which as yet remains practically untilled.

The Bancroft Library may, under proper administration, at once enter the field of historical publication, with results highly creditable to the University. In its great manuscript stores are documents that should, as speedily as possible, be given to the world. In the mission and presidio archives alone, there is abundant material for a high grade of editorial work; these could be followed by the Vallejo, Larkin, and other collections of papers, bearing upon every phase of Pacific Coast life—Spanish, Russian, and American. The opportunity for scholarly work in this direction is, both in freshness and breadth, quite unexampled elsewhere in America.

When asked to undertake this appraisal, I at once invited the expert coöperation of Mr. Frederick J. Teggart, Librarian of the Mechanics' Institute, and a member of the University Extension staff. Mr. Teggart's critical knowledge of early Californiana has been of the greatest value; I have throughout had his constant daily assistance in the difficult and somewhat strenuous work of examining the collection. I have also had welcome assistance from Mr. D. E. Smith, likewise of the University Extension staff.

THE WEINHOLD LIBRARY.¹

HUGO K. SCHILLING.

*"Clastrum sine armario
Est quasi castrum sine armamentario."*

What was true of the monastic schools of the middle ages applies with redoubled force to our modern universities, in this age of "laboratory methods" even in the humanities: the library is the most essential part of an institution of learning. The recognition of this fact by the governing body of our University led to the adoption of that liberal policy which adds to our library upwards of twelve thousand volumes a year and which, together with special donations, has brought the total number of books on hand up to nearly one hundred and sixty thousand. There are in this country probably not more than three universities whose libraries are growing more rapidly than ours; we may well be gratified at the progress we are making in the accumulation of an equipment adequate to present-day university needs.

The acquisition of the Weinhold library marks a long stride in that direction. Until a few years ago the bulk of our collection of books in the line of Germanistics consisted in the purchases made with a fund of \$2,100 raised

¹ Abstract of an address delivered at the University meeting held on September 22, 1905, in commemoration of the gift of the Weinhold Library by Mr. John D. Spreckels.

in 1885 by Professor Putzker. The range of these purchases was determined by that of the higher German courses then given, which concerned themselves chiefly with eighteenth- and nineteenth-century literature. For a number of years thereafter the library appropriation remained quite small, until at last the regents decided to increase it to its present size; at about the same time Mr. E. A. Denicke donated, for the benefit of the German library, a fund of \$1,000, to the income from which he has since annually added a sum sufficient to make a total of \$100. Three years ago a special grant of \$450 by the Library Committee for the purchase of books in Germanic philology assisted in removing a glaring deficiency; and our allotment from the general library fund as well as the income from the Denicke fund was year after year mainly devoted to the systematic filling of the numerous remaining gaps. The foundation was laid for the building up of a library uniformly representative of the entire domain of Germanistics.

But the rapid development of our graduate work created immediate needs in the presence of which the prospect of a gradual, steady growth of our library afforded but little satisfaction. Something had to be done at once to increase our working equipment. A public appeal was made in the *California Staatszeitung*; but it proved unavailing. Then a committee of prominent German-born citizens of San Francisco was intrusted with the opening of a subscription; but in view of other similar efforts then being made, the situation did not seem to favor early action.

Matters were in this unsatisfactory shape when the firm of J. Baer & Co. in Frankfort offered for sale the library of the late Professor Weinhold of the University of Berlin. Karl Weinhold was the last of those old-time scholars who cultivated the entire field of Germanistics. He had won distinction alike as an authority on the history of the High-German dialects, as a literary historian and an

editor of mediæval and modern authors, and as a pioneer and leader in the study of German folk-lore and of Germanic antiquities. He had shown me on one occasion some of the numerous rare books which he had collected, and I had formed a general impression of the size and quality of his library. I knew that its acquisition by us would not only supply our immediate needs but would also give us a class of books that are, at this distance from the book markets, practically unobtainable in any other way: those which are out of print and which appear but rarely even in second-hand catalogues. The main objection that is apt to be urged against the purchase of an entire library is that there results in such cases a duplication of a considerable number of volumes already on hand. But we had reached a point where we needed a working library that should be permanently installed in our seminary room for the use of instructors and advanced students in work of a scholarly sort; and such a collection, withdrawn as it should be from general circulation, ought theoretically to consist of duplicates throughout. And the working outfit of a great scholar, accumulated in the course of a lifetime of investigation in every branch of his department of learning, is from its very nature ideally adapted to the purposes of a university seminary.

A practical consideration finally turned the scales: it is easier to obtain subscriptions for the purchase of an entire collection than for the enlargement of one already on hand; it is easier still to obtain the entire amount needed from some one man,—if you find the right man. I canvassed the situation with Mr. F. W. Dohrmann, one of the members of the committee referred to, and decided to ask Mr. John D. Spreckels to buy the Weinhold Library for us. Together we went on that, to me, momentous errand; Mr. Spreckels responded most generously, though with characteristic brevity: he merely suggested that we cable for the catalogue. The library was ours.

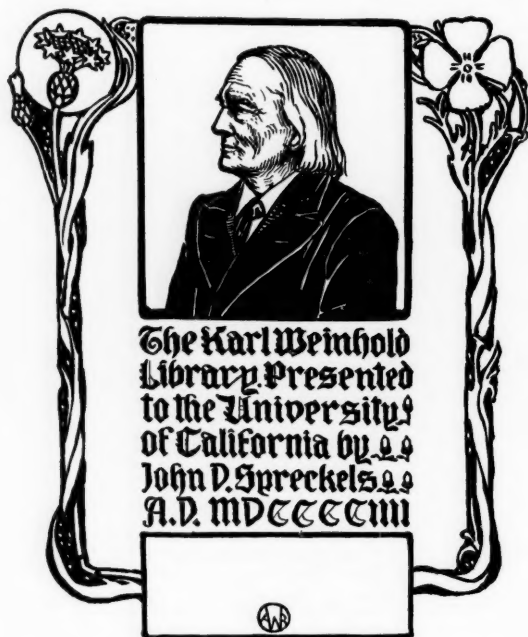
Mr. Spreckels not only furnished the sum of seven thousand dollars for the purchase of the library, but also defrayed the entire cost of transportation. Mr. Dohrmann took upon himself the business details of the transaction and went to considerable trouble and expense to carry the matter to a successful issue. A delay of several months was caused by the binding of some eight hundred volumes, the expense incurred being covered by the sale of several sets of periodicals which we already possessed and did not care to duplicate. It took five months to bring the library round the Horn to its destination, and another month to set it up in our seminary room, to correct the provisional classification made by Baer & Co., and to verify and check off each number in the catalogue.¹ We had previously been furnished with lists of books catalogued but missing, and of books actually in the library, but not catalogued; the deficiency was happily more than offset, in extent and value, by the new accessions.

The cataloguing of the collection according to our system will take fully a year. A bookplate has been prepared which shall preserve the identity of the collection and perpetuate the memory of its donation. A catalogue of the books of particular value for original work and of such others as are not likely to be found elsewhere in this country will be published at an early date for the benefit of librarians and scholars in other universities.

The library consisted originally of not far from 9,000 books and pamphlets; by the sale above referred to the number was reduced to about 8,500, namely: 6,166 bound volumes, and 2,279 mostly unbound monographs. All departments of Germanistic study are impartially represented. The array of mediæval and modern authors, with the biographical and critical writings relating to them, is

¹ The library was formally opened on the morning of September 22, when Professor Schilling showed the treasures of the collection to the members and friends of the University who came to view them.

naturally the most imposing of all; but comparatively speaking, the collections in the generally much-neglected fields of Germanic antiquities and German folk-lore are deserving of special mention for their richness. The value of the library lies, however, not only in its size and range, but also, and particularly, in its quality. Weinhold was a bibliophile, with a taste for collecting rare books in his



line of work; and during his long career as a professor in various German and Austrian universities he had exceptional opportunities for gratifying his inclination. Accordingly we find in his library an uncommonly large number of precisely those books which are of most value in scholarly research, but to which the American investigator can

usually obtain access in Europe only. Chief among these are the original editions of literary works, which are usually seen through the press by the authors themselves and afford, therefore, the only absolutely authoritative texts. Of such the Weinhold Library contains several hundreds, beginning with one of Luther's treatises and with the first complete edition of the poems of Hans Sachs (1558) and continuing down to the nineteenth century; Opitz, Wieland, the Storm-and-Stress writers, and the Romanticists are especially well represented. To this class belong also the "Musenalmanache," the literary almanacs in which much of the best poetry of Goethe and Schiller and their contemporaries made its first appearance; likewise the "Taschenbücher" and other collective publications; and of many of these, including practically all the principal ones, Weinhold secured complete sets. In other fields, too, we owe to him rarities too numerous to permit of the mention of more than a few samples. There are, for instance, in lexicology, the German dictionaries of Steinbach (1734), Frisch (1741), and Haltau (1758); in biography, the first account of the life of Geiler von Kaisersberg, by Beatus Rhenanus, 1510; in history, the chronicles of Aventinus (first German edition, 1566), and of Cureus (1607); in geography, the *Weltbuch-Spiegel* of Sebastian Franck, 1534; in folk-lore, the extremely rare anonymous volume of proverbs dated 1560, and Zinkgref's collection of anecdotes, 1693. Of value to scholars in various departments are the controversial writings from the time of the reformation, like Erasmus Alberus' *Der Barfüsser Mönche Eulenspiegel*, with a preface by Luther, 1542; the various old hymn books with notes, *e.g.*, that of Praetorius, 1605; and a beautifully illuminated collection of secular songs from the year 1747. There are old folios in covers made from leaves of still older parchment manuscripts with painted initials, and little sextodecimo volumes from the eighteenth century, gilt-edged and bound in morocco; there

are books with crude woodcuts and others illustrated with masterpieces of the engraver's art; and in many of them are autographs of noted scholars and poets who at one time owned them, and interesting marginal notes in a script that has long since become unfamiliar. It is a library that gladdens the heart of the scholar and cannot fail to fascinate and inspire the student. There is an education in merely seeing the classics of the past in their original garb; they appeal to the imagination, they bring to us something of the atmosphere of bygone ages.

Several other libraries of distinguished Germanists have been brought to this country, but none so large or so rich in bibliographical treasures as that of Weinhold. Nor is it likely in this age of growing specialization that another library as comprehensive as ours will ever be obtainable. The gift of this splendid collection makes the German department of our University one of the best equipped in the country. For this generous benefaction to ourselves and to future generations, no less than for the unquestioning readiness with which it was bestowed and the spirit of modesty which disclaims all credit therefor, we honor Mr. Spreckels and shall ever hold him in grateful remembrance.

THE UPPER DIVISION.¹

ALEXIS F. LANGE.

The revised scheme for undergraduate work in the Colleges of General Culture exhibits the following characteristic features:—

1. The framework of the traditional course of four years is retained.
2. A dividing line or barrier runs straight through the middle of the four-year course.
3. The student is given a maximum of choice—or *Lernfreiheit*—consistent with scope of effort and specialization of effort.
4. The student may, if he chooses, dovetail the upper end of his four-year course and the lower end of his professional course, *i.e.*, he may make such specializing as he is asked to do coincide with the direct preparation for his future career.

Now, these features of the present system do not necessarily imply new wine as well as new bottles. They do not necessarily imply new aims or modifications of old aims. They may be regarded merely as the result of a local attempt to carry out old aims more effectively. We need not see in them much more than mechanical improvements or the contrary. As a matter of fact, practical considerations

¹ A paper read at a meeting of the Philological Club, September 11, 1905.

had not a little to do with the revision of which the present scheme is the outcome. One of the reasons for insisting more than ever on a four-year course was certainly to provide a check upon the strong tendency to crowd four years of study into three. One of the reasons for the dividing line in the middle was certainly to compel students to make good, matriculation, freshman, and sophomore deficiencies, within a reasonable period of grace. One of the reasons for consistently applying the principle of a minimum of compulsion and a maximum of choice was undoubtedly to reduce schedule difficulties. Lastly, one reason for incorporating the beginnings of professional training was simply the practical necessity of shortening, if possible, the time required for a professional degree.

But while practical efficiency and ease of operation were prominent factors in the task of revision, the revised scheme is supposed to embody more clearly than the original the progress of the last ten or fifteen years in educational theory. The attempt at such an embodiment rests on three postulates, each of which was more or less consciously present in the minds of those that undertook the revision:—

1. The American Nation must evolve its own national system of education, a system embracing all kinds and grades of education, a system expressing the character and spirit of the nation, as its other institutions do, and ministering, like these, to its needs and growth.

2. This evolution is identical with the further evolution of the school systems of the various states. Private institutions, to justify their existence, will always have to conform.

3. California is in a better position than any other State to take the lead in promoting this evolution. To lead becomes therefore the duty of this State. *Noblesse oblige.*

What, then, is the theory of which the present scheme is supposed to be the embodiment? You will pardon me if I approach the answer to this question, which concerns

a part of the state school system, by starting with this system as a whole, with its possibilities in the direction of organic unity. The system, which, I think, we are outgrowing, but which is still representative, may be roughly compared with a pyramid. This pyramid consists of a broad base of eight grammar school grades. From it rise in succession a four-year block of high school, a four-year block of college, and an apex of from three to four years of graduate or professional courses. Each of these parts has had a history more or less independent of the other. All but the apex are American adaptations of English traditions, the high school being the most original of these. The apex we owe to Germany. The indwelling idea of the base is the concept or idea of elementary education; that of high school and college of secondary education,—the ideal or goal being different degrees of Liberal Culture;—the ideal or goal of the university is that of a profession, a profession directed either toward the pursuit of pure research or toward the application of principles,—training for research being presupposed—to the practical problems of life. Now, on examining this system from the viewpoint of educational thought, we can hardly fail to notice:—

(a) That the juncture of grammar and high school grades and the juncture of college and university are mechanical rather than organic, while in the case where there is an organic connection—in the case of high school and college—there is artificial separation;

(b) That in consequence of the fact that the high school has become wedged in between grammar school and college, while the German university has been superimposed on the college, there is a certain maladjustment to the pupil's or student's growth at two points:—

(1) The grammar schools encroach by at least two years on instruction and training that for all children of from twelve to fourteen years of age, whatever their later careers are likely to be, should be controlled by the outlook

upon the world of man and of nature, by the aims and methods, that characterize secondary education.

(2) The older college with its traditional aims and methods encroaches by at least two years on instruction and training that for all concerned should be controlled during the first years of mature manhood and womanhood by the essential principle of the university type of instruction and training.

These considerations place before us a twofold problem. The first is how to bring about an organic relation between the high schools and the grammar schools, and a corresponding relation between the college and the university. The second is how to adjust each type of education to the stages of normal growth. This problem is, on its practical side, nearly identical with the problem of how to save time without educational loss.

How are these problems to be solved? Not by revolutionary but by evolutionary methods, by changes within the existing system and by such external modifications as these changes will gradually call for.

As far as the grammar school portion of the school system is concerned, there are as yet few visible signs of any external modifications. The trend of educational thought, however, is unmistakable. There is, in the first place, a growing recognition of the fact that the last two years of the grammar school are largely wasted; there is a growing conviction that the root of the trouble lies ultimately in the maladjustment I have mentioned; there are signs also of an early agreement among educators that the remedy consists in gradually transforming the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools into high school grades for all pupils, especially for those who will never go farther. The first step in this transformation will most likely be to place these grades more and more into the hands of college-bred teachers. This process is going on now. The next step, a more and more conscious adaptation of the

point of view, aims and methods, of secondary education, the subjects taught remaining the same. The last step will be, I suspect, the introduction of certain subjects usually classed as secondary school subjects, such as elementary geometry and foreign languages. For those who are planning early to attend a high school, the last step may be the first, especially in the larger cities.

If now we turn back to our revised scheme for undergraduate study and training, we can easily see, I think, that it represents a modification of the traditional system exactly analogous to that proposed for the grammar schools. The Upper Division corresponds exactly to the two upper grammar grades of the future. Like these it represents the last stage of an accepted part of the educational system; like these it represents the first stage of the next higher part of the system; like these it has as its aim or as the principle determining instruction not that of the grades immediately preceding but that of the grades immediately following. It is culminal, if I may say so, and basal at the same time, culminal for those who do not go beyond the bachelor's degree; basal for those who look forward to one of the learned professions, including those of teaching, whether in universities or secondary schools.

But why this dovetailing? Is it a rational improvement? It is justified and even demanded by every theoretical consideration, not to mention very important ones of a more general practical nature. Let us examine the plan of an upper division like ours from the point of view of the old noble ideal of secondary education—the ideal of Liberal Culture. Its farthest goal is the greatest possible perfection of manhood and womanhood. The ultimate result hoped for and aimed at is a human personality which is 'living—that is, susceptible to impressions at the greatest possible number of points; which is free—that is, free from the domination of the senses and little things or facts; which is enlightened—that is, has actually taken pos-

session of the best of present and past and thus can see life steadily and see it whole; which is rational—that is, sane in judgment; which is sympathetic withal—that is, able to say: *nihil mundani a me alienum puto*; which has aspirations and a character in accord with the laws of the universe.' The emphasis rests throughout on the human individual, on exercise for the development of individual power rather than on exercise for social service, on fitness rather than on fitness for something. The American college has not always escaped the danger of failing to recognize that becoming fit for something is a most important factor in becoming fit, that Liberal Culture is not a static condition, and that to share in the highest and best civilization of the present implies readiness and preparedness to take a definite active part in it.

Not to be prolix,—our national ideal of Liberal Culture, in order not to lag behind the modern conception of personality at its best and highest and strongest, in and through service, must necessarily emphasize intelligent initiative and rationally directed powers, particularly since the present college course demands several years which the old college did not claim. Now, as far as the purely intellectual side of training is concerned, the way to prepare the student for intelligent initiative and the rational direction of his powers is to shift the attention—as soon as this may be done without harm to the other prerequisites of culture—from results to be assimilated to the processes and methods of getting them. To learn how the organized common sense of the modern scholar works when applied to problems old and new, to learn something about the tools it works with, to begin to form by actual practice the mental business habits necessary for dealing adequately with the chaos of unknown things—this is an essential ingredient of college training. In other words, college training should include a strong element of university training, whatever the student's plans for the future may be.

This demand is reënforced by the fact that modern scholarship is something dynamic. Without modern research and its methods, the material life and the thought of the world could not have been revolutionized as they have been during the last hundred years. It follows, that if an intelligent appreciation of the forces of civilization is characteristic of a liberal education—and it certainly is—then a college cannot because of its very ideal be satisfied with the conservation, transmission, elaboration, and assimilation of results.

A third reason for introducing university work lies in the fact hinted at several times, that normally the process of education in the strict sense is over by the age of twenty-one. Education becomes self-education. The further evolution of the student as a human being is his business, because he is no longer a plastic youth, no matter how undeveloped he may appear intellectually. What we can still do for him directly is to treat him and train him for a man's work, for service, for doing something definite in some cause other than himself. If we can't have the impersonal scientific interest from him, let us develop the bread-and-butter interest. Rather this than the notion that the sole purpose of a college faculty is to fill his precious self with sweetness and light. Feeding must go on, of course, in the sense of offering food; but we must stop cutting it up for him, stop inserting the spoon, stop watching painfully that he gets and swallows it at certain hours of the day. Informational courses are still in order, and inspirational still more so; in order are likewise opportunities for the promotion of routine skill in the scholarly arts,—here is the idea underlying the provision for free electives in the Upper Division,—but the greatest gain to personal culture will be obtained at those points where the natural wholesome desire on the part of a young man or woman twenty-one years and over, to do and learn something useful, is given an object, and is stripped of its grossly

selfish element by training for the search after truth and its application, when found, to some problem of consequence to humanity.

The argument for the earlier beginning of university work as the first stage of professional training is perhaps too obvious to require statement. I shall content myself with referring to one aspect of it. After twenty it becomes increasingly difficult to acquire new habits. If thousands of our American professional men are incompetent because they began too early, they are matched by thousands equally incompetent because they began too late, because they were too old to master their subjects in a scientific spirit, by scientific methods. The result is at best routine, dependence on authority,—an artisan. I have had enough to do with various classes of students to be able to assert positively that it is easier to make an average Junior take the scientific point of view than it is to make an average college graduate do so.

I take it to be true, then, that as soon as we pass beyond the conventional view we must admit the necessity of training for research before the student leaves college, whether to go into business or a learned profession. You will notice, however, that I have been careful to say training for research, not engaging in research, in the sense of exploring the unknown. Original research is frequently thought of, talked of, bragged of, as if it denoted some esoteric rite, some peculiarly holy acts, performed by high priests behind a sacred curtain, which they alone are privileged to part and which the profane multitude dare not even approach. Only the elect may draw near; nor they, unless they have so-called general culture—which frequently turns out to be general ignorance—and a bachelor's degree. Until then, they, like their fellow-worshippers, must rely on the high priests for the revelations vouchsafed in the holy of holies; until then research is *taboo*. The American zealot, "made in Germany," is supported in this view by the de-

votes of another cult, that of sweetness and light and mush. But that is another story. The first steps in research are for every reason of sound pedagogy a legitimate aim of grammar grades. They are a part of the training which gives the mind command of itself. But, to make research, or rather the training for it, or the training by its methods and processes, the determining principle of instruction,—this belongs to a time when the student's maturity warrants it.

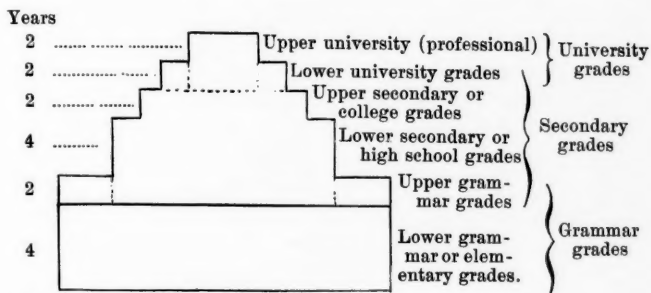
Here we get back to the idea underlying the provision of a major study for Juniors and Seniors. The emphasis in this is supposed to be placed with steadily increasing force on principles, processes, methods. The amassing of the necessary facts is supposed to be turned over more and more to the student's initiative. Whether he has them is tested more and more by the things he can do in an independent scientific way. The motto: *I work for revenue only*, is supposed to fall more and more into innocuous desuetude—even in work which presumably will be the student's life work—as he becomes more and more interested in the discovery of the principles underlying the knowledge he has hitherto accepted largely on authority, interested in learning how knowledge has been obtained and how it must be obtained, interested in seeing where the frontier of the known lies, interested in equipping himself by actual attempts—whether in territory already explored by others or just beyond the border—for the extension of the frontier. He is supposed, if all goes well, to graduate with a little of the feeling that goes with the willing giving of a pledge to join the fraternity of one's choice; in this case a fraternity the members of which are animated by one and the same spirit of devotion to truth, by love of the fraternity on account of the truths on which it rests and the service it renders to civilization.

How far we have realized this idea in our practice I have no means of measuring. There are dangers to be

avoided. One of them is treating Juniors as if they were candidates of three years' standing for the Ph.D. Analogous to this is the danger of passing at once to the practical technique of the practicing physician, lawyer, or school teacher. Another is the opposite one of teaching all classes of Upper or Lower Division alike,—in spite of ourselves. There are practical difficulties to be overcome. But, unless we believe we cannot perform the same kind of task which the grammar school teachers have before them, we can at least make steady progress. Of one thing I am sure now,—the response of the better students. One of the things we can do, if the reorganization of work rests on and embodies sound principles, is to make these our own and consciously set about to work them out in the class room. Another thing we can do is to cut down the scope of courses intended to constitute major work, and, on the other hand, to increase the number of Junior and Senior courses that belong under the head free elective. The scheme contemplates nine units per term of major work, plus whatever college courses—*i.e.*, free elective courses—a student chooses to take. A third problem is how to form sequences of the type: propaedeutic course, or courses, plus pro-seminar, plus seminar—the last open usually only to graduates, and to form these sequences according to what the scientific treatment of a subject involves, not according to some unessential principle. A fourth, closely akin to the third, is how to secure such coöperation in each department that the kinds of things to be done are properly provided for and not merely, let us say, so many authors and so many periods, all of which are now apt to be treated alike without differentiation of aims or methods, so that the student sees, of course, only differences of material and quantity, and more or less agreeable variations of idiosyncrasy in the instructor. Accordingly, it is not the kind or type of work he chooses, but the course; and he keeps on choosing thus until happily he has done his stunt of units, regardless of

whether he has now a working chart for his subject or not, regardless of whether he has now a certain grasp of the body of principles that work in his subject calls for, and has learned how to apply them.

The following figure may serve to symbolize the reformed school system.



18 = total number of years provided for.

6

24 = normal age of student on completing preparation for a profession.

TALKING *VERSUS* ACTING.¹

RICHARD MANSFIELD.

I have heard of a gentleman who traveled this country with a lecture which he advertised in the daily papers under the title of "Milk," but the audiences which flocked to hear him were never able to discover any reference to milk in his discourse. Perhaps you will be of the opinion that my address, talk, or whatever you may be pleased to term it, will be much of the same quality, although I hope you will not find that what I have to say is entirely lacking in the milk of human kindness.

I hope, too, you will forgive me if I read my little talk to you this afternoon, but I am sure you will understand that I have been very busy with other matters, appertaining to my profession, and I cannot, therefore, dare to indulge myself in a memorized or extempore address. Also I would like to have it understood that what I have to say to you is not born of the conviction that I know more about the stage than any one else, but, right or wrong, it is the expression of my personal opinions and observation and that is, I presume, what you want from me.

It is a great pleasure and honor to be here to-day, and the fact that you are interested in the stage and the drama must, of course, be a source of congratulation to me personally and to all those who have at heart the welfare of

¹ An address delivered in the Harmon Gymnasium, November 23, under the auspices of the University Dramatic Association.

the theatre in this country, and when we realize the depth of this interest shown by your great University and your ambitious Dramatic Association, it surely cannot be said that, at least so far as the University of California is concerned, the stage and drama are likely to die of neglect.

Nor indeed is the stage likely to die of neglect anywhere. But at this moment it cannot be denied that the ship of the stage is drifting somewhat hither and thither. Every breath of air and every current of public opinion impels it first in one direction and then in another. At one moment we may be said to be in the doldrums of the English society drama, or we are sluggishly rolling along in a heavy ground swell propelled by a passing cat's paw of revivals of old melodramas. Again we catch a very faint northerly breeze from Ibsen, or a southeaster from Maeterlinck and Hauptman. Sometimes we set our sails to woo that ever clearing breeze of Shakespeare, only to be forced out of our course by a sputter of rain, an Irish mist and half a squall from George Bernard Shaw, but the greater part of the time the ship of the stage is careering wildly under bare poles with a man lashed to the helm (and let us hope that like Ulysses he has cotton wool in his ears) before a hurricane of comic opera!

But whilst the press, which is the voice of the public, is finding fault with the condition of the stage, it is perhaps forgotten that the public itself is largely responsible for this condition. When you need a fine president, you elect one, and if you elect a bad one, it would be your fault or the fault of a faulty machine. If you were by any chance to submit to graft in every direction, bad municipal government, to insufficient regulations, bad roads, congested traffic, highway robbery and wholesale vice, who would be to blame, if you are content to sit with your hands in your laps and yell murder? There has, ever since I have had the honor and privilege of appearing before American audiences, been this same outcry against the American stage,

and there has always been sufficient interest at work to make this outcry, but never sufficient interest to do anything about it, and here is a case of talk versus acting. Yet here are some ninety millions of people possessed of the greatest wealth of any nation in the world. It is just as easy to have a national theatre in this country as it is in France or Germany. It is now some seven years since I attended a very delightful function in the city of Chicago, and being called upon to make some remarks and being totally unprepared, it occurred to me to suggest the establishment of a national theatre. This suggestion was widely discussed at that time by the press and immediately after forgotten. Since then various eminent persons have stolen my thunder; but neither my thunder nor their echo of it has cleared the air, and to-day the stage of this country—as indeed of England—is in the same unsatisfactory condition. And so we talk and don't act.

We need a recognized stage and a recognized school. America has become too great and its influence abroad too large for us to afford to have recourse to that ancient and easy method of criticism which decries the American and extols the foreign. That is one of those last remnants of colonialism and provincialism which must depart forever.

Neither is it of the slightest benefit to the stage or to the drama, or to the individual actor, for us to be reminded upon every possible and impossible occasion that Mr. Garrick is dead. The chances are that if Mr. Garrick were to return to-day he would have a hard field to plow, *i.e.*, if Mr. Garrick were to appear incognito as Mr. Brabazon Montmorency, for instance, we should see Mr. Garrick, alias Mr. Brabazon Montmorency, reading about himself in the morning papers something like this: "Mr. Brabazon Montmorency last night gave himself all the airs of a Garrick, but where, oh! where was the spirit of the departed Garrick?" When Mr. Garrick made his first appearance as a gentleman who had never acted before on any stage,

he was advertised to play the life and death of King Richard III between the first and second parts of a concert in the vicinity of London, and such was his instantaneous success that, according to his own confession, he never played to a poor house during his entire career. Of course we quite understand that Mr. Garrick spoke after the same manner that truthful managers speak to-day. We can imagine the élite of San Francisco traveling to Oakland to see Mr. DuPuyster play King Lear in a *soirée musicale*, and we can imagine what the much tried and overworked dramatic critic would have to say about it, if he said anything. But the matter does not end here. There were at that time only two recognized theatres in London. To-day in all capital cities their number is legion. Realize that London then was not as large as Cleveland, and how easy it was for an actor of any ability—or a poet—or a painter, to raise himself head and shoulders above his fellows; and yet more: Garrick was surrounded by a coterie of delightful spirits, amongst which were Samuel Johnson and Goldsmith and Richard Brinsley Sheridan and a dozen others known to you all. The Prince Regent was there every night with a galaxy of wit and beauty and he was glad to give Mr. Garrick his arm or to be tooled down to Twickenham or Richmond on the box seat of Mr. Garrick's coach. To-day the actor may be said, as far as artistic atmosphere and a literary coterie may be concerned, to eat his heart out in solitude.

Where and from whom can he draw inspiration? In the days of Garrick those men who wrote plays came with bended knee and bated breath and whispering humbleness to beg Mr. Garrick to accept their work. To-day! We look around a vast plain of emptiness and if upon the horizon we desery the nebulous figure of a nascent dramatic author pressing to his puling lips a sucking bottle of dramatic buttermilk, we crawl to his feet and implore him to bestow upon us, regardless of cost, one drop of the precious fluid.

Can the actor to-day, remaining in one city, produce with any hopes of success one play after the other? How is he to do it without a theatre and a fund of money? New and original plays he certainly cannot find in the English language! They are not being written as far as I am aware. Perhaps they are and it has not been my privilege to see them. Then must he translate the works of Ibsen or Hauptman or Maeterlinck and other foreigners? Can he depend upon the works of the dead masters—Shakespeare and Goldsmith and Sheridan or Wycherly or Browning—upon Schiller or Goethe or Lessing, Racine or Corneille? Let me tell you that the standard to-day is so much higher, the demand of the public so much greater than in the days of Garrick or Edmund Kean, that a hasty or superficial representation of any one of these men's masterpieces would not be endured. Sir Henry Irving has, alas, just passed away and the wreath of everlasting fame has been placed upon his tomb in Westminster Abbey by a grateful King and Queen and people, but he was not able to produce more than one, or at the outside two, plays in his theatre each season, and even that effort bankrupted him and he died, to all intents and purposes, penniless! The costly productions inaugurated by Charles Kean, Kemble and Macready, and faithfully followed and improved upon by Irving and Calvert and others, have spoiled the public for anything but the costliest *mise en scène*, and it is not enough for the actor to study his role, but he must be prepared to devise and superintend the construction of a mass of scenery and costumes, of effects of lighting, of the movements of a mob of figurants, and he must have the practical and financial mind to meet the dreadful question of expense! And do you then imagine—or rather do you demand—that the actor alone of all struggling beings to-day, should be the one to ignore entirely financial reward? Does the clergyman preach the word of God without any earthly remuneration, and the solicitor plead the honorable cause of his

client for the love of Justice alone? Where is this art of production, these elaborate productions to end?

It is very evident that any man, be he an actor or no actor, can with money and with good taste, make what is technically termed a production. There is, as an absolute matter of fact, no particular credit to be attached to the making of a production. The real work of the stage—of the actor—does not lie there. It is easy for us to busy ourselves, to pass pleasantly our time designing lovely scenes, charming costumes and all the paraphernalia and pomp of mimic grandeur, whether of landscape or of architecture, the panoply of war, or the luxury of royal courts. That is fun; pleasure and amusement. That again comes under the head of talking versus acting. No, the real work of the stage lies in the creation of a character. A great character will live forever, when paint and canvas and silks and satins and gold foil and tinsel shall have gone the way of all rags.

But the long, lone hours with our heads in our hands, the toil, the patient study, the rough carving of the outlines, the dainty, delicate finishing touches, the growing into the soul of the being we delineate, the picture of his outward semblance, his voice, his gait, his speech, all amount to a labor of such stress and strain, of such loving anxiety and care, that they can be compared only in my mind to a mother's pains. And when the child is born it must grow in a few hours to completion and be exhibited and coldly criticized. How often, how often have those long months of infinite toil been in vain! How often has the actor led the child of his imagination to the footlights, only to realize that he has brought into the world a weakling or a deformity which may not live! And how often he has sat through the long night brooding over the corpse of this dear figment of his fancy! It has become lately customary with many actor managers to avoid these pangs of childbirth. They have determinedly declined the re-

sponsibility they owe to the poet and the public, and have instead dazzled the eye with a succession of such splendid pictures that the beholder forgot in a surfeit of the sight the feast that should have fed the soul. This is what I am pleased to term talk versus acting. The representative actors in London are much inclined in this direction.

I remember coming across an article written by Hans Christian Anderson in the old Cornhill Magazine about a production of "The Tempest" at Her Majesty's Theatre. I was lost in wonder and amazement as I perused page after page of glowing description of this marvelous and fairy-like investiture of Shakespeare's play. But as I read there rose in my nostrils from the old-time journal the dust and dry rot of a dead endeavor, and the book fell from my hand as I came upon this final line: "But I would rather see Shakespeare intelligibly interpreted in an empty barn." In these days there are loads and loads of money, but there are few actors! And these loads of money will make productions, but they won't make actors! I recommend to the students of the stage of the future the simplest background artistically sketched in merely to suggest sufficiently and clearly whatever scene the author indicates.

There is much at the present time which militates against the education of the actor. It has become largely the custom for managers of theatrical companies to rely upon one play each season, or for as long a period as any play will hold the public favor. This means a few weeks of rehearsal and idleness the rest of the time. A society play, for instance, is purchased in London, a cast is engaged in New York in which each individual player peculiarly suits the character he or she has to interpret. Repetitions take place under the eye of the astute manager, the play is launched, and there is nothing more to be done by the actors. The business manager and especially the press agent do the rest. Most of these plays that come to us from London are disquisitions on social topics, social

problems, expositions of the author's peculiar views on matrimony, or pugilism, or the relations of the sexes, or a searchlight into a dark and reeking closet which nobody wants to examine. In these plays, and plays of this class, it is only necessary for the interpreter to speak the words, but there is no call for great acting. The actor is simply floating for a while upon the tide of the author's temporary notoriety. The actor should sternly put away the temptation which may come to him under the guise of financial success to produce plays which pander to debased tastes, for though, for a brief spell, he may hold the attention of the public, he will win neither respect nor lasting reward, and he will have openly degraded an art which should be devoted only to the beautiful.

Recently it has become a habit with women of the stage to rely for effect upon exhibitions of hysteria. There is nothing easier for a woman to do all the world over, once she has made up her mind to do it, than to become hysterical. I have heard that a great many ladies give fine exhibitions of this art in the sanctity of their homes. All you have to do is to make up your mind to tear every shred of self-restraint to pieces, pull up the anchor and let go the hawser and pouf! There you are! Bumping the floor, tearing your hair, playing a ragtime with your heels and shrieking at the top of your voice. But great griefs are not expressed in this way. The gallery may applaud, but the judicious will grieve.

"She sat like Patience on a monument
Smiling at grief."

Shakespeare suggests hysteria in comedy only as in "The Taming of the Shrew" for instance, but Ophelia and Desdemona and Lady Macbeth and Perdita indulge in no such ebullition.

And to refer for a moment to the use of unpleasant subjects upon the stage, we are all aware, we cannot but be aware, of the existence in this world of nauseous and

distressing evils. This world was beautiful until man made it ugly, and it still remains beautiful to those who will seek its beauties. We may at once confess that there are sewers and some bad sewers. That is the truth. But because it is the truth, there is no need to exhibit them upon the stage. There are other means of eradicating such evils. The stage is neither a police court nor a hospital. Both are unfortunately necessary to mankind, but they are not necessary upon the stage. The loftiest aim of the pulpit and the stage is to teach us to be better and consequently happier, but neither a church congregation nor a theatre audience is to be improved by, or should be asked to endure, the distressing details of brutal, vulgar and disgusting vice. The stage is for the young especially, and we may indulge them in fairy tales and history and poetry; in tales of love and romance and achievement and of heroism and an occasional ghost story with a moral—like “Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde”—but we may not distort their fancy or endanger their moral lives by an exhibition of a rare and exceptional phase of social debasement. Ruskin’s advice to young artists may well be kept in mind—it is, as I remember it, to this effect: “When you are to paint a tree, find a beautiful tree and a tree that every one knows to be a tree. It may be the truth that there is a hideous and deformed and extraordinary freak of a tree to be found in the forest, but that tree is not the tree for you to copy.”

And the student may well ask, “What are we to copy and whom are we to copy?” Don’t copy any one; don’t copy *any* individual actor or his methods. The methods of one actor—the means by which he arrives—cannot always be successfully employed by another. The methods and personality of one actor are no more becoming or suitable or adapted to another than certain gowns worn by women of fashion, simply because these gowns *are* the fashion. In the art of acting, like the art of painting, we must study life—copy life! You will have before you the work of

great masters, and you will learn very much from them—quite as much what to avoid as what to follow. No painting is perfect and no acting is perfect. No actor ever played a part to absolute perfection. It is just as impossible for an actor to completely simulate nature upon the stage as it is impossible for the painter to portray on canvas the waves of the ocean, the raging storm clouds or the horrors of conflagration.

The nearer the artist gets to nature, the greater he is. We may admire Rubens and Rembrandt and Van Dyke and Gainsborough and Turner, but who will dare to say that any one of their pictures is faultless? We shall learn much from them all, but quite as much what to avoid as what to emulate. But when you discover their faults, do not forget their virtues. Look and realize what it means to be able to do so much. And the actor's art is even more difficult! For its execution must be immediate and spontaneous. The word is delivered, the action is done and the picture is painted! Can I pause and say: "Ladies and gentlemen, that is not the way I wanted to do this, or to say that; if you will allow me to try again, I think I can improve upon it?"

The most severe critic can never tell me more or scold me more than I scold myself. I have never left the stage satisfied with myself. And I am convinced that every artist feels as I do about his work. It is the undoubted duty of the critic to criticize, and that means to blame as well as to praise, and it must be confessed that, taking all things into consideration, the critics of this country are actuated by honesty of purpose and kindness of spirit and very often their work is in addition of marked literary value. Occasionally we will still meet the man who is anxious to impress his fellow citizens with the fact that he has been abroad and tinctures all his views of plays and actors with references to Herr Dinkelspiel or Frau Mitterwoorzer, or who, having spent a few hours in Paris, is forced

to drag in by the hair Monsieur Popin or Mademoiselle Fifine. But as a matter of fact, is not the interpretation of tragedy and comedy by the American stage superior to the German and French?—for the whole endeavor in this country has been toward a closer adherence to nature. In France and in Germany the ancient method of declamation still prevails, and the great speeches of Goethe and Schiller and Racine and Corneille are to all intents and purposes intoned. No doubt this sounds very fine in German and French, but how would you like it now in English? The old-time actor had peculiar and primitive views as to elocution and its uses. I remember a certain old friend of mine who, when he recited the opening speech in *Richard III* and arrived at the line “In the deep bosom of the ocean buried,” suggested the deep bosom of the ocean by sending his voice down into his boots. Yet these were fine actors to whom certain young gentlemen, who never saw them, constantly refer. The methods of the stage have completely changed and with them the tastes of the people. The probability is that some of the old actors of only a few years ago would excite much merriment in their delineation of tragedy. A very great tragedian of a past generation was wont in the tent scene in *Richard III* to hold a piece of soap in his mouth so that, after the appearance of the ghosts, the lather and froth might dribble down his chin! and he employed, moreover, a trick sword, which rattled hideously and, what with his foam-flecked face, his rolling eyes, his inarticulate groans and his rattling blade, the small boy in the gallery was scared into a frenzy of vociferous delight!

Yet, whilst we have discarded these somewhat crude methods, we have perhaps allowed ourselves to wander too far in the other direction, and the critics are quite justified in demanding in many cases greater virility and force. The simulation of suppressed power is very useful and very advisable, but *when the firebell rings* the horses have got to come out and rattle and race down the street and

rouse the town! Of immense value to the world is the stage! In the words of Schiller, "Wohlthätig ist des Feuers Macht, Wenn sie der Mensch bezähmt, bewacht!" This may be said of the stage. Watched and guarded, its influence is only for good and for the happiness and benefit of the people.

What could not be done for the people of this land were we to have a great and recognized theatre! Consider our speech and our manner of speech! Consider our voices and the production of our voices! Consider the pronunciation of words and the curious use of vowels! Let us say we have an established theatre to which you come not only for your pleasure, but for your education. Of what immense advantage this would be if back of its presiding officer there stood a board of literary directors, composed of such men as William Winter, Howells, and Edward Everett Hale and Aldrich and others equally fine, and the Presidents of this and other great universities. These men might well decide how the American language should be spoken in the great American theatre, and we should then have an authority in this country at last for the pronunciation of certain words. It would finally be decided whether to say fancy or fahney—dance or dahnce—advertisement or advertysement and many other words; whether to call the object of our admiration "real elegant"—whether we should say "we admire" to do this or that, and whether we should say "I guess" instead of "I think." And the voice! The education of the American speaking voice is, I am sure you will agree, of immense importance. It is difficult to love a woman or to continue to endure a woman who shrieks at you! A high-pitched, nasal, stringy voice is not calculated to charm, and this established theatre of which we dream should teach men and women how to talk, and how splendid it would be for future generations if it became characteristic of American men and women to speak in soft and beautifully modulated tones. What would

be more in harmony with this entrancing California, our modern Greece?

These men of whom I have spoken could meet once a year in the great greenroom of this theatre of my imagination and decide upon the works to be produced, the great classics, the tragedies and comedies, and the living authors should be invited and encouraged. Here again we would have at last what we so badly need, an encouragement for men and women to write poetry for the stage! As I have already told you, nothing by way of the beautiful seems to be written for us to-day, but perhaps the acknowledgment and the hall-mark of a great theatre might prove an incentive.

The training of the actor! To-day there is practically none. Actors and actresses are not to be taught by patting them on the shoulders and saying "Fine! Splendid!" It is a hard, hard school on the contrary, of unmerciful criticism. And he is a poor master who seeks cheap popularity amongst his associates by glossing over and praising what he knows to be condemnable. No good result is to be obtained by this method, but it is this method which has caused a great many actors to be beloved; and the public to be very much distressed.

As for the practical side of an established theatre, I am absolutely convinced that the national theatre could be established in this country on a practical and paying basis; and not only on a paying basis, but upon a profitable basis. It would, however, necessitate the investment of a large amount of capital. In short, the prime cost would be large, but if the public generally is interested, there is no reason why an able financier could not float a company for this purpose. But under no circumstances must or can a national theatre, in the proper use of the term, be made an object of personal or commercial profit. Nor can it be a scheme devised by a few individuals for the exploitation of a social or literary fad. The national

theatre must be given by the people to the people and be governed by the people. The members of the national theatre should be elected by the Board of Directors and should be chosen from the American and British stage alike, or from any country where English is the language of its people. Every inducement should be offered to secure the services of the best actors; by actors, I mean actors of both sexes; and those who have served for a certain number of years should be entitled to a pension upon retirement.

It is not necessary to bother you with further details, and I only mention this to impress you with the fact that the national theatre is a practical possibility. From my personal experience, I am convinced that serious effort upon the American stage meets with a hearty endorsement.

We are supposed to be a laughter-loving and, as far as our amusement is concerned, a frivolous people, and many business men point out to me that when they have finished their day's work they are too tired to consider anything but burlesque or comic opera, or light farce; but I don't think they have ever stopped to consider the fact that a shallow entertainment does not help to take them out of their business thoughts into the depths of other ideas. The fine swimmer strikes out beyond the breakers and revels in the deep, ealm sea beyond. The contemplation of a great play, of great tragedy or of any drama of surpassing interest must rest the mind, for it changes the trend of a man's thoughts and carries him away from himself and his troubles. The French have the reputation too of being a frivolous and laughter-loving nation, but I have never attended a performance at the Comedie Française that was not crowded, and on every occasion the representation has been of some long, serious poetical or historical play, as for instance "Henri Trois et sa Cour."

And now you know why I have called my little address "Talking versus Acting." I have talked and no one is

likely to act. One parting word: In nothing that I have said is there one particle of venom or rancour, and I must not be construed into criticizing or belittling in any way the work of the many eminent men and women who hold the boards to-day and who so often delight you. Please remember that we have here no King or Queen or Kaiser to confer honors upon the deserving artists or the great author. Remember that to the writer and the artist your praise and appreciation is his sunlight, and that the only honored place in this land in which he may hope to dwell after he is dead is in your hearts.

THE SUMMER SESSION OF 1905.

ERNEST CARROLL MOORE.¹

Seventy-eight different courses of instruction were given at the University of California during the Summer Session of 1905 by a teaching force of seventy-six instructors, readers, and laboratory assistants. This faculty included such distinguished visitors as Ludwig Boltzmann, Professor of Physics, the University of Vienna; James Mark Baldwin, Professor of Philosophy, Johns Hopkins University; Anna Botsford Comstock, Lecturer in Nature Study, Cornell University; William Gardner Hale, Professor and Head of the Department of Latin, University of Chicago; Calvin Noyes Kendall, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis; Hammond Lamont, Managing Editor of the New York *Evening Post*; Eliakim Hastings Moore, Professor and Head of the Department of Mathematics, University of Chicago; Thomas Day Seymour, Hillhouse Professor of the Greek Language and Literature, Yale University; Albert Augustus Stanley, Professor of Music, University of Michigan; and Reuben Gold Thwaites, Secretary and Superintendent of the Wisconsin Historical Society and Lecturer on American History, University of Wisconsin.

There were 795 students in attendance at Berkeley during the Summer Session of 1905, of whom 339 were men and 456 women, while the attendance of 1904 was 913,

¹ Dean of the Summer Session of 1905.

and of 1903 was 859. This falling off in attendance seems to have been due to four principal causes: the Portland Fair, the competition of the Summer Normal School at San Jose, our own systematic discouraging of undergraduate students from attending, and less attention, perhaps, on the part of the press of the State than heretofore. The Lewis and Clark Exposition attracted vast numbers of Californians, among them perhaps as many as two hundred teachers and students who otherwise would have spent a part of their vacation in study at Berkeley. Superintendents of city schools reported to us before the opening of the session that their teachers were not planning to attend the Summer Session this year, but were arranging to go to Portland instead.

The competition of the Summer School at San Jose contributed to lessen our numbers, not so much through the superior attractiveness of its work, for we offered similar courses in several lines, as through the superiority of its method of making its existence known.

As the Summer Session of the University of California is organized solely for the aid it may render in the general education of the people, it is desirable that its benefits should be brought to as large a number of students as possible. The summer schools of other universities are widely advertised and every effort is made to increase the size of their classes. Our Summer Session has never employed this method. It has become one of the largest and certainly one of the best in the land, without the expenditure of a dollar for paid advertising. But complaint has been made by students that its existence is not sufficiently known; that until one has already been in Berkeley or come in touch with some one who has, and so learned our method of distributing announcements, it is practically impossible for him to get information of its courses and avail himself of its work. When one considers the marked advantages in the way of climate, instruction, and the merely

nominal cost of residence here, which the Summer Session at Berkeley offers, and at the same time remembers how large a number of men and women on the Pacific Coast are or should be interested to assemble themselves here each year, he cannot but conclude that the next step in increasing our usefulness is to make our school more widely known. The character of the instruction which is offered, the commodiousness of the University buildings and the size and personnel of our teaching staff should attract 3,000 students each summer, 2,000 from California and 1,000 more from the neighboring Pacific States, instead of the eight or nine hundred who come regularly now.

The summer session of a university is apt to become in part a coaching school where regular students who have fallen behind may make up their hours. This tendency has been systematically discouraged from the first. Recently rather more careful efforts have been made to point out to such students that they are not the pride and mainstay of our company, with the result that fewer of them put in an appearance this year than formerly. New regulations at Stanford concerning credit for work done here contributed to this result. While undergraduates who are making good past failures are not desirable students, undergraduates from the technical colleges who take this opportunity to work in the liberal arts, in fact, all students who come to supplement their regular work by further study, rather than to obtain additional credits, are to be numbered with the best members of the school.

Twenty-three States were represented at Berkeley during the term which has just closed. Students came from as far east as New York. Most of the States west of the Mississippi were represented, and eighty students in all came from outside of California. Of those coming from our own State, Alameda County furnished the largest number, 310; San Francisco came next with 102, and Los Angeles next with 68. Twelve counties sent no students at all.

They were Alpine, Del Norte, Glenn, Lassen, Mariposa, Mono, Monterey, Placer, Plumas, San Benito, Sutter, and Trinity.

Seventy-two students were graduates of the University of California, and 149 were graduates of other colleges. Seventy-two registered as graduates from normal schools. The total number of college students enrolled was 253, while the total number of teachers was 304. It is not surprising that this student body was referred to by instructors who have been connected with the University long enough to venture an opinion, as the best which they had seen assembled on the Campus. Two hundred and twenty-one, or more than a fourth of them, were post-graduate students.

In general the character of the courses which were offered during the session of 1905 did not differ greatly from that of previous sessions. Experience has shown that the subjects in which instruction is most desired are History, Education, Literature, Philosophy, Languages, Mathematics, and Elementary Science. All these departments were, as formerly, fully represented. It is increasingly evident that the University cannot serve the commonwealth better than by doing all in its power to promote the efficiency of the teachers and the quality of the instruction in the elementary and secondary schools of the State. The bulk of our students are teachers—the best teachers in the public schools. They come seeking to perfect themselves in the work which they are doing. More of them might come, and it is the first duty of the management of this school to persuade more of them to come in future, but no better class of students than they constitute could be assembled. With a view to serving them more directly more courses were offered in Education than hitherto. Instruction was given in the teaching of practically every subject of the elementary and secondary courses of study. These courses were well attended and much satisfaction

was expressed with this feature of the organization of our work. Similar courses designed for teachers offering instruction primarily in subject matter and secondarily in methods of teaching that subject matter, should, we think, form a regular part of the work of the Summer Session. One quite new feature of the session of 1905 was the Observation School conducted under the direction of Professor F. E. Farrington. It offered many of the advantages of a laboratory and was of very great service to both teachers and students of education. It should become a regular feature of our work.

Courses in Law were offered this year for the first time. It was felt that many young men engaged in other lines of work, or studying law alone or in an office, would avail themselves of this opportunity to study under direction. In this conjecture we were not disappointed. The classes were well attended and the results which were accomplished amply justify the repetition of these courses.

A remarkable thing about the session which has just closed was the way in which students distributed themselves to the different classes. Practically all the courses which were offered were well attended. Another matter which deserves mention was the faithful attendance of auditors upon the courses which they chose to visit, until the very end of the term.

We were especially fortunate in securing the services of a number of distinguished visitors to the Coast to lecture before the students of the University. Among them were Rabbi Emil Hirsch of Chicago, who addressed a University meeting upon the subject, "Educational Ideas and Ideals." President Robert S. Woodward of the Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C., and Dean Laura D. Gill of Barnard College, also addressed a University meeting, President Woodward taking for his subject "The Work of the Carnegie Institution," and Dean Gill speaking upon "The Work of Barnard College." The final University

meeting of the session was addressed by Professor Graham Taylor, Warden of Chicago Commons, and President Henry Churchill King of Oberlin College.

There is a demand for more work in English Literature than was offered this year. Courses in Composition are very well attended and should be given each year, but a popular course in literature requiring a large amount of reading in the best authors would meet the wants of many students. Instruction in Civics should be added to our programme. Reading courses in Latin, Greek, French, and German authors are more needed than special courses in the teaching of these subjects, though teaching courses should sometimes be given. The opposite is true in Physics, Chemistry, and Mathematics. Teaching courses should be given in these subjects each year. Courses designed particularly for teachers in commercial high schools should be added next year. The courses designed for teachers in the elementary schools should receive more attention, as they have completely justified their presence in our programme of studies. Composite courses should not be given if courses by a single instructor can be arranged.

In conclusion let me repeat that the students of our Summer Session are a very exceptional body of men and women. They come with very definite intellectual interests. They come for work, and though the term is short they are able to accomplish results which are quite worth while. The Summer Session has proven its value. Through it the University is serving the State as effectively as it can in any other way.

UNIVERSITY REGISTRATION, NOVEMBER 1, 1905.

JAMES SUTTON.

The table following shows the registration of students in the University on November 1, 1905; it shows also the corresponding registration for four years preceding 1905.

	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905
Graduate Students	168	172	207	194	271
Undergraduate Students { Letters, Social Sciences, Natural Sciences, Com- merce, Architecture, Agriculture, Mechanics, Mining, Civil Engineer- ing, Chemistry }	2099	2315	2273	2331	2362
Totals in the Colleges at Berkeley	2267	2487	2480	2525	2633
Colleges of Law, Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Art...	665	564	600	563	471
Totals, all Colleges	2932	3051	3080	3088	3104
Summer Session	799	830	868	913	795

Between November 1 and Commencement Day of each academic year there are always two hundred or more additional registrations. On this account a careful analysis of the registration statistics is usually postponed until the figures for the year are complete. So far as the statistics for November 1 of the five years in question have been analyzed, the following results appear:

1. In spite of some decline in the enrollment in certain of the colleges at Berkeley, the number of students to-day in the colleges at Berkeley is larger than in any previous fall session in the history of the University; also, in spite of a great decline in the number of students in the professional schools in San Francisco, the total number of students in the University as a whole is greater than ever before.

2. On November 1, 1904, there were 789 undergraduates in the Colleges of Mechanics, Mining, Civil Engineering, and Chemistry; this year there were 764. This loss may be due to the fact that this year, for the first time, the University requires for matriculation in these colleges either French or German, and Geometrical Drawing; also, that the curriculum of the College of Chemistry has been rearranged and (from the point of view of the average undergraduate) "stiffened."

3. Turning now to the professional colleges, in San Francisco, we find in every one of them a smaller registration this year than four years ago. The College of Pharmacy has suffered the smallest loss; it had eighty-five in 1901 and has eighty-one now. Both Medicine and Dentistry have lost practically 50 per cent. of their enrollment as reported in 1901. This loss is not difficult to understand in the case of the College of Medicine; here there has been a steady increase in the entrance requirements, until now the first year's work in Medicine presupposes and requires at least two years of college work equivalent to the two years of the Pre-medical Course in the College of Natural Sciences. Last year there were thirty-three freshmen in Medicine; this year there are nine.

4. The great increase in the number of graduate students is due to the University regulation which requires candidates for teacher's recommendations to spend at least half a year at the University in the graduate status. Indirectly, this change may bring about some increase in the number of candidates for higher degrees.

5. The new course in Architecture has an enrollment of twelve undergraduates. There are in addition a number of undergraduates in other courses and colleges who are taking some of their electives in Architecture.

6. The College of Agriculture, like the other colleges of applied sciences, has recently raised both its admission and its graduation requirements, but, unlike the other colleges, the number of its undergraduates has increased instead of diminished: eighty-nine one year ago, one hundred and eleven to-day.

UNIVERSITY RECORD.

ALBERT H. ALLEN.

PURCHASE OF THE BANCROFT LIBRARY.

The Bancroft Library has been purchased by the University of California. The purchase price was \$250,000, and of this amount Mr. H. H. Bancroft, the collector of the Library, donated \$100,000, leaving \$150,000 to be paid by the University. This sum will be paid in three annual installments, and the expense will be charged by the Regents to the Permanent Improvement fund for a series of five or six years.

Dr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, Superintendent of the Wisconsin State Historical Library, and a distinguished expert in the field of American historical bibliography, was recently invited to California by the Regents of the University to examine the Bancroft Library. His report, which is given in full in this number of the *CHRONICLE*, shows that the collection is well worth \$300,000, and this without attempting to determine the value of some important portions of the collection. Of manuscripts alone the Bancroft Library has a collection that is in fact priceless in the opinion of Dr. Thwaites, although he gives \$80,000 as a most conservative estimate of what the Library of Congress would offer for this portion of the Library alone.

With the Library the University will secure as a very useful adjunct the many labor-saving devices used by Mr. Bancroft in the classification of his material. These include

card catalogues, indices, lists and notes, and will be of great value to the University in the work of cataloguing and preparing the Library for the use of scholars.

The University took possession of the Bancroft Library November 25, Mr. Bancroft, the creator of this remarkable collection, signing on that day the papers which transferred it to the University. For the present, Mr. Frederick Taggart, a member of the University Extension staff of the University and Librarian of the Mechanics Institute in San Francisco, has been designated by President Wheeler as custodian of the Bancroft Library. The University authorities are anxious at the earliest possible moment to make available for the use of scholars the treasures of this collection, and within the next few months will install it in one of the buildings at Berkeley, there to await the completion of the new Doe Library building, which will probably be its final home.

In connection with the acquisition of this invaluable library the following statement of President Wheeler is of interest:

"The purchase of the Bancroft Library marks a great day in the history of the University. It means the increase of the University Library at one stroke by one-third its present extent in number of volumes: it means the inevitable establishment at Berkeley of the center for future research in the history of Western America; it means the creation of a school of historical study at the University of California; it means the emergence of the real University of study and research out of the midst of the Colleges of elementary teaching and training; for the State of California it means rescue from the threatened danger of having the fundamental and unreplaceable documents of its earliest history carried as spoils outside its boundaries. Had it not been for the acquisition of the Library for the State at this time, it would have certainly passed very speedily to the Library of Congress or one of the two or

three great eastern libraries which are eagerly collecting the materials containing sources of all early American history. If this had been done no amount of collectors' zeal or money could have made good the loss.

"The Library is a mine in which generations of explorers will work. Its manuscript material includes almost the entire range of available documents for the history of early exploration and the establishment of the government and social life of the Pacific Coast. Manuscripts such as those which in large mass form the nucleus of the collection are things which exist or are lost once for all. The University with its limited resources could ill afford to expend the money necessary for acquiring the collection, but as representing California it could also ill afford to take the responsibility of letting it go. On the judgment of the best expert in the country the price of \$250,000 at which the library has always been held by its owner proved to be a very moderate one. The commercial value of the collection even as a thing to be broken up and to be sold piecemeal surely exceeded this price. Mr. Bancroft himself recognized clearly and patriotically that the place for the collection is here in California and he therefore made what is an outright and undoubted contribution of \$100,000 toward its purchase, leaving the Regents to pay the remaining \$150,000 from University funds in three installments of \$50,000 each; payable, the first on the purchase of the library, the second one year from date, the third two years from date. The Regents have planned to distribute the expense as a charge against the Permanent Improvement fund for a series of five or six years. In no other way would the finances of the University permit the purchase. A similar plan was adopted for the purchase of the Hillegass Tract six years ago and on the completion of the payments this year the sum taken annually from the Permanent Improvement fund is now to be applied for the purchase of the Library. The Hillegass Tract is to-day worth more than

double the price at which it was purchased; in six years I have no doubt that men will have recognized that the Bancroft Library is worth far more than double the money expended upon it.

"The acquisition makes more desirable than ever the speedy construction of the Charles F. Doe Library building, which ought to be, when finished, one of the best libraries in the country. For the present the collection will be housed on the third floor of California Hall, a verily fire-proof building now approaching completion, or if the space there should on more careful inspection and measurement prove insufficient for the storage of the books and their proper use, it will be placed in the rooms designed for library purposes in the new Hearst Mining building."

SYMPHONY CONCERTS IN THE GREEK THEATRE.

The University of California is about to institute a symphony orchestra of professional musicians. Beginning Thursday afternoon, February 15, at 3:30 o'clock, and continuing every second Thursday afternoon until the end of April, a series of six symphony concerts will be given by an orchestra of fifty pieces, with Dr. J. Fred Wolle, Professor of Music in the University of California, as conductor.

These concerts will be given in the Greek Theatre except in case of inclement weather. Should the weather be unfavorable on any of the days arranged, the concert will be given in the Harmon Gymnasium, which has seating accommodations for 2,500 people. The hour selected is half-past three, in order that students and teachers may find it possible to be present. The intermissions between the numbers on the programme will be very brief, so that ordinarily the concert will be over by 5 o'clock, allowing visitors from across the bay to be in San Francisco by 6 o'clock.

The price of reserved seats for the series will be \$5, and for seats not reserved,—in the Greek Theatre on the con-

crete tiers above the diazoma—the price will be \$3. Single admissions will be, for reserved seats in the chairs below the diazoma, \$1, and for unreserved seats, 75 cents. Any profits which may result from the series will be added to the musical and dramatic fund of the University. There is no element of personal profit in the enterprise, as the undertaking is altogether of the highest public character.

The University could not have undertaken the very considerable financial responsibility of such a series of symphony concerts had it not been for the generous coöperation of Mr. F. M. Smith of Oakland, who has offered to serve as guarantor for the expenses of the series. It is, however, expected by the University that the public will so respond to this opportunity to hear the noblest music by a really fine orchestra that the series will become self-supporting. If this shall prove to be the case, the University will then expect to make an annual series of symphony concerts a permanent feature of its work. The establishment of such a permanent symphony orchestra as a part of the work of the University would be of the highest possible service to the musical life of the community.

For the first series Professor Wolle will select six symphonies which he thinks will have most in them of beauty and charm for a public so appreciative of music as is that of California. Each programme will include also three or four other orchestral numbers. The aid of the best professional musicians in San Francisco will be sought in the organization of the orchestra and all the members will, of course, be remunerated for their services. The University contributes the use of the Greek Theatre, or in case of need the Harmon Gymnasium. The services of Professor Wolle as conductor, and the aid of the Musical and Dramatic Committee in undertaking the administrative work connected with the series are freely given, and will involve no responsibility whatever to the budget of the University for the symphonies.

A peculiarly notable feature of this symphony series is that it will close with a choral and orchestral concert on the afternoon of Thursday, April 26, when the University chorus of three hundred voices, organized here by Professor Wolle, will give the principal parts of Handel's "The Messiah" with solos and with the aid of the full symphony orchestra. This will be the first opportunity the public will have to hear the University chorus, in the establishment of which the students have taken such enthusiastic interest, and which has been preparing since last September, as throughout the spring it will continue to prepare, for this rendition of "The Messiah."

The University is now ready to receive subscriptions for season tickets for the symphony series. Subscriptions may be sent by mail to Professor William D. Armes, Chairman of the Musical and Dramatic Committee of the University of California, Berkeley, or subscription blanks may be obtained at Paul Elder's, 238 Post street; Sherman, Clay & Co., Kearny and Sutter streets; and Kohler & Chase, Post and Kearny streets, in San Francisco; and in Oakland at Smith Bros., 462 Thirteenth street; Kohler & Chase, 1013 Broadway; Sherman, Clay & Co., 1120 Broadway. In Berkeley subscription blanks are to be had at Sadler's, at the Coöperative Store and at the Recorder's Office.

COMING EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS.

A number of conventions of educational associations are to be held in California during the winter and spring, and many of them will meet wholly or in part at the University. The first of these gatherings will be the meeting of the California State Teachers' Association in Berkeley during the week beginning Tuesday, December 26. In connection with this meeting, a State Farmers' Institute will be held, a State Library Board convention, and a convention of School Boards and School Trustees. In addition to these, the institutes of seventeen counties in the vicinity of the Bay will

convene in Berkeley. The county institutes alone will insure a large gathering of teachers, and the State Teachers' Association in addition, together with the Farmers' Institute and the School and Library Boards, will bring a total of probably five to eight thousand people, more or less directly identified with educational work, to the University town.

Church buildings and halls have been secured for the meetings of the numerous sections into which the various conventions will be divided; and the University has put at the disposal of the visitors all its available rooms. The general registration office, bureau of information and committee rooms will probably be in the new California Hall. Hearst Hall will be open every evening during the period of the conventions as a general place of rendezvous, for committee work and for sociability.

Aside from the meetings of sections devoted to the discussion of particular subjects, there will be joint meetings of the Farmers' Institute and the teachers of the elementary schools for the discussion of nature study and of elementary agriculture in rural schools; joint meetings of the library boards and school trustees for the consideration of matters of mutual interest touching the use of libraries; business meetings of separate organizations; and mass meetings for all, which will be addressed by prominent speakers. These authorities from other parts of the country will also assist at section meetings.

A feature of the occasion will be the opportunity to inspect the California Educational Exhibit which was displayed at St. Louis and at Portland, and which will be installed in rooms 15 and 16, North Hall.

APPRECIATIONS OF DR. WOLLE.

The appointment of Dr. Wolle to the chair of Music in the University of California has created great interest in musical circles in the East. The following interesting

communication from Professor A. A. Stanley, Director of the School of Music in the University of Michigan, appeared September 6 in the *Musical Courier*, one of the leading musical publications in the country:

"To the Editor of the *Musical Courier*:

"Dear Sir:—Permit me to add to your appreciative words regarding the appointment of J. Fred. Wolle to the Chair of Music in the University of California. Possibly no other man could be found in whom combine more happily the essential qualifications for success in such a position—scholarship, enthusiasm, perseverance and tact—than Professor Wolle, and there exists in no other community, within my knowledge at least, more of inspiration for such a man than in Berkeley. Professor Wolle's achievements in Bethlehem are prophetic of the future. There can be no doubt that under his guidance there will develop an artistic atmosphere that will be unique and of inestimable value in the advancement of the highest artistic standard, not alone in California, but also in the whole country. Therefore it is a happy augury that the interests of music in one of our greatest universities are placed in the hands of such a master as Professor Wolle.

"Very sincerely,

"ALBERT A. STANLEY,

· "Professor of Music, University of Michigan."

The *Musical Courier* made the following editorial comment upon the appointment of Dr. Wolle:

"The California University has just created a chair of music, and is setting out right to make that department a real factor in its educational work, and not an incumbrance—we had most said, a farce—like the music departments of Eastern universities. Dr. Wolle should be the right man in the right place. He is earnest in music, and the West is earnest in music. He will be given every encouragement, and the results are certain to follow his

beneficent rule, for he has had practical experience at Bethlehem, where he transformed a village community into the best Bach choir we have in the country. There will be real music at the University of California after Dr. Wolle begins his duties there."

An account of the life and work of Professor Wolle, with a full-page portrait, appeared in the *Musical Courier* for October 4th.

GIFTS TO THE NEW HEARST MINING MUSEUM.

A prominent feature of the Hearst Memorial Mining Building will be the Museum of Mining and Metallurgy. This will not be a collection of minerals, ores, and rocks, such as is already provided for in the Museum of Mineralogy and Geology, but will contain collections of models of mines, showing the form of the deposits, the relation to the country rocks, and the methods of working the mines. A large number of these models are already in the possession of the Mining Department, having been portions of the official exhibits in some of the most celebrated cases which have appeared before the United States Courts.

In addition, it will contain models of mining and metallurgical machinery, and of furnaces. It will also contain collections showing the various products of mines, from the raw ore as it issues from the mine, through the various products of concentration, to the finished metal with all the intermediate products arranged so as to illustrate the whole method of treatment.

Gifts are coming in from time to time, which will be stored until the Museum is ready for occupancy.

Professor Christy has received a letter from the management of the Alaska Treadwell Gold Mining Company, which offers to donate the exhibit of the Alaska Treadwell Mining Company which appeared at the St. Louis and Portland Fairs to the New Hearst Mining Museum. This exhibit attracted a good deal of attention at both of the Fairs,

and has been earnestly sought for by the different Chambers of Commerce as a portion of their exhibits. It consists of a series of models showing the actual size of the gold bricks produced by the Alaska Treadwell Mine for each year since it was opened, up to, and including, the year 1904. These bricks are all gilded with gold and have printed upon them the product for each year.

Another of the interesting gifts to this Museum was made some time ago by Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst. This consists of two large columns each made up of six large blocks of ore cut from the various working levels of the Homestake Mine in South Dakota. These blocks are dressed on three faces and are left rough on the other faces and have cut upon them the places from which they were taken in the mine. The first column represents the ore from the "Open Cut," and from the 100, 200, 300, 400 and 500 foot levels of the mine. The other column has ore from the 600, 700, 800, 900, 1,000 and 1,100 foot levels. These blocks of rock are masses of the country rock which have evidently been fractured and re-cemented with quartz, making of each block a solid mass of gold bearing ore. This will remain an interesting and permanent exhibit long after this great mine is worked out.

These gifts from Homestake and Treadwell Mines are interesting as coming from the two most remarkable mines of low grade gold ores in the world. The ore from these two mines runs from only two to four dollars per ton, and yet, owing to the great size of the deposits, and the skill with which they have been worked, they have yielded large fortunes to their owners.

Among those who have contributed to the success of these mines are several California graduates. At the Alaska Treadwell Mine, Mr. Frederick W. Bradley, Class of '86 (Mining), is General Manager, and Mr. Robert A. Kinzie, Class of '97 (Mechanics), is Superintendent; at the Homestake Mine, Mr. Charles W. Merrill of the Class of '91

(Mining) erected, and made a success of, the large cyanide plant there, after several Eastern experts reported that the ore could not be successfully worked by that process.

OTHER GIFTS TO THE UNIVERSITY.

An important gift from the Consul General of Mexico at New York has been received at the Library. It is a magnificent work entitled "Mexico, Its Social Evolution," in three folio volumes, profusely illustrated with portraits, views, maps, and colored plates. It is an authoritative exposition of the progress during the past century and present condition of our southern neighbor nation, and of its material and intellectual advance, composed by numerous able specialist writers.

Mr. William H. Mills has presented to the Library a set of bound volumes of the Sacramento Record-Union from July, 1867, to March, 1903.

Col. Thomas H. Handbury, U.S.A., Corps of Engineers, has made a gift to the Library of several hundred volumes of works on civil engineering.

The Pelton Water Wheel Company of San Francisco has given to the Department of Mechanics a 30-inch tangential water wheel, with needle regulating nozzle, brake wheel and shaft complete. This gift was made through Mr. George J. Henry, '93, the engineer for the Pelton Company.

Hon. Charles W. Slack has given to the Library a collection of two hundred and thirty-four volumes on English Law.

In order to provide for the work of the Department of Anthropology and for the completion of the collecting and cataloguing of its various exhibits, Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst has given the sum of \$60,000, to be used in amounts not

exceeding \$20,000 each year. This is in addition to the gift of the archaeological and anthropological collections, made by Mrs. Hearst at a cost of somewhat over \$400,000.

Mrs. Hearst will also provide for the printing of the results of the explorations of Dr. Uhle in Peru and of Dr. Reisner and his associates in Egypt, and also for the completion of the Tebtunis Papyri volumes, one of which has already been published.

A portrait of Mr. John Swett, who was Superintendent of Public Instruction from 1862 to 1867, and who organized the public school system of California, has been offered to the University by a number of admirers who desire to do him honor, and the gift has been accepted. In accordance with the wish of the donors, the picture will be hung on the walls of the Library, as an addition to the collection of portraits of great California teachers.

The thanks of the Board of Regents have been extended to Mr. E. A. Denicke for his annual contribution of forty dollars to bring the annual income from his donation to the Library fund up to \$100.

Professor Gayley, Professor of the English Language and Literature, has received a medal and diploma from the Jury of Awards of the St. Louis Exposition in recognition of his services as Chairman of the English Section of the Educational Congress and Speaker on the History of Literature.

The University of California Library is in receipt of a commemorative diploma issued by the International Jury of Awards of the St. Louis Purchase Exposition, to President Wheeler for services rendered in the International Congress of Arts and Sciences as speaker in the department of history and language. This Congress was held under the auspices of the Exposition.

THE WEINHOLD LIBRARY.

The Library of Karl Weinhold, late Professor of German Philology in the University of Berlin, presented to the University of California by Mr. John D. Spreckels for the enrichment of the opportunities for study and research in Germanic Philology, has been installed in the University Library. The members and friends of the University were invited to view the collection in Seminar Room II of the Bacon Library Building, on the morning of September 22. Dr. Hugo Karl Schilling, Professor of the German Language and Literature, was at the Library to show the treasures of the collection to all who were interested.

A full description of this library, written by Professor Schilling, appears in this number of the CHRONICLE.

APPOINTMENTS AND CHANGES.

Since the September number of the CHRONICLE the following appointments to the staff of the University have been made: J. Fred. Wolle, Professor of Music; Dr. William Popper, Instructor in Semitic Languages, to succeed Professor Max Margolis, resigned; Eugene R. Hallett, '05, Secretary to the President; E. A. Hugill, Superintendent of Grounds and Buildings, to succeed A. L. Bolton, resigned; Sturla Einarson, Assistant in Astronomy; Warren Vester Clark, '92, Assistant in Civil Engineering; Anna W. Rosenmuller, Mail Clerk in the Library, to succeed F. T. Blanchard, '05, resigned; Herbert A. Stout, Evening Assistant in the Library, to succeed J. A. Rowell, resigned; Pauline Gunthorp, senior Cataloguer in the Library, to succeed Edna L. Goss, resigned; Beatrice J. Barker, Cataloguer in the Library, to succeed Miss Gunthorp, promoted; Dr. J. C. Blair, '01, Assistant in Anatomy; J. H. Barber, Foreman of the Santa Monica Forestry Station; Donald Walter Davis, Assistant in Zoology, to succeed L. Griggs, resigned; James A. Force, '05, and John W. Geary, '04, Assistants

to the Commandant; F. H. Glasson, '03, Clerk in the Department of Mining and Metallurgy, to succeed C. H. Dunning, '98, resigned; J. A. Daly, '05, Assistant in Physics, to succeed Paul Thelen, '04, resigned; Miss E. G. Field, Stenographer in the Department of Anthropology; Dr. Sanford Blum, '94, Instructor in Pediatrics.

President Wheeler has appointed Mr. J. B. Neff, of Anaheim, as Conductor of Farmers' Institutes in Southern California. Mr. Neff is a well known fruit grower of Orange County and has been for years a leader in the local association of walnut growers and manager of the Southern California Deciduous Fruit Exchange. He has also been prominent as a speaker at Farmers' Institutes in Southern California and is thoroughly in sympathy with University Extension in agricultural lines and will proceed energetically in organizing meetings to be held during the coming winter and spring. Mr. Neff's residence at Anaheim will be of advantage in his work, as it is a central location in a county of notable agricultural specialties, as well as greatly diversified agriculture.

Mrs. D. L. Bunnell has been appointed Clerk to the Director of the Department of Agriculture, to succeed Mr. C. A. Colmore, '94, resigned. Mr. Colmore has taken a position as Assistant to Manager James R. Davis of the Students' Coöperative Society.

Mr. J. V. Mendenhall, '00, has resigned as Stenographer to the President to accept a position with the California Promotion Committee in San Francisco. Mr. Robert Odell, '02, has been appointed to the position of President's Stenographer.

President Wheeler attended the Teachers' Institute of Monterey County at Monterey in October, and delivered an address on Education on the Pacific Coast. On November 2d he spoke at the session of the Northern California Teachers' Association at Red Bluff. In order to attend the

meeting of the National Association of American Agricultural Colleges and United States Agricultural Experiment Stations, held at Washington, November 14 to 17, the President was obliged to cancel a number of other engagements for the more important purpose of securing information at this meeting on matters of interest to the University. During his absence in the East he represented the University of California at a meeting of the National Association of Presidents of State Universities, held in Washington.

A CATALOGUE OF THE ACADEMIC SENATE.

The University of California will shortly issue a catalogue of the Academic Senate from 1869 to 1905, which has been compiled by Professor William A. Merrill. This catalogue will contain the names of all present and former members of the Senate with the positions held by them and the dates of assuming and retiring from their positions. As the Academic Senate is composed of all holding the title of Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor and Instructor, together with those holding other titles of equivalent rank, this catalogue includes the staffs of the professional schools in San Francisco. A complete index adds to the utility of this valuable compilation.

HONORS FOR SCHOLARSHIP.

The Committee on Prerequisites of the Academic Council has recommended the adoption of a plan for awarding honors and honorable mention as an encouragement to scholarly effort. According to this plan, each department is authorized to offer annually subjects for independent study and investigation, and to recommend for honors with the bachelor's degree such students as shall have satisfied the requirements for honors. There will be two grades awarded, honors and highest honors. The requirements for honors will be normally as follows:—

Every candidate for honors must pass in a manner evincing marked grasp and efficiency an examination on the subject or topic which he offers for honors, and must present such written papers as may be called for.

Every candidate for honors, in addition to passing the examination for honors, must complete in a thoroughly satisfactory manner fifteen units of Upper Division work in the department from which he desires the recommendation.

Applications for candidacy for honors should be presented as soon as possible after entering the Upper Division. No application will be received later than eight months before graduation.

The Academic Council will establish a standing committee of seven members on honors, whose duty it shall be to report from time to time on matters concerning uniformity of standard and the coördination of the requirements of the several departments.

The term "Honorable Mention" will be placed on the Junior Certificates of students that have attained at least second grade in forty-five units of their freshman and sophomore courses, and the same term will be employed in the official lists of graduating students in order to designate those that have attained first grade in fifteen units of advanced studies (*i.e.*, courses of Group Elective Grade), and at least second grade in 21 additional units of work in the Upper Division of the Colleges of General Culture, or of the regular Junior and Senior work in the Colleges of Applied Science.

THE BONNHEIM DISSERTATION PRIZES.

The Committee on the Bonnheim Dissertation Prize Competition have awarded the prizes for 1905 to H. E. Squire, '06, and D. Hadsell, '06. There were eight contestants, but the committee decided that but two of the dissertations were worthy of consideration for the prize. Mr. Squire has the additional distinction of being the first

winner of a Bonnheim Dissertation prize from the colleges of Applied Science. He is registered in the College of Civil Engineering.

The Bonnheim Discussion Prize of \$150 will be awarded to one of these two men at the competition which will be held at Hearst Hall, December 9. The topic for the dissertations and discussions of this year is Voltaire's *dictum*: International law is the jurisprudence of highway robbers.

THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.

The committee in charge of the Rhodes Scholarships in the State of California hereby make formal announcement that hereafter the scholarships will be assigned in open competition between the students of all the universities and colleges of the State of California. The next examination for the Rhodes Scholarship will be held early in 1907. Information concerning the terms and conditions may be obtained by addressing the chairman of this committee. The committee is composed of Benj. Ide Wheeler, chairman, David Starr Jordan, and E. C. Norton.

A NEW GRADUATE FELLOWSHIP.

The Board of Regents of the University recently received a request from Mme. Thérèse F. Colin, Professor of French in Wellesley College, to be permitted to give property worth about \$12,000 as an endowment to be known as "The Thérèse F. Colin European Graduate Fellowship Fund," with the provision that she shall receive the income from the fund during her lifetime. The endowment was accepted, with the thanks of the Regents, at their meeting on November 14.

A CURRENT HISTORY ESSAY PRIZE.

An annual prize of \$100 for the best essay on some subject in the field of current history, open to students in the University of California, has been offered by Arthur I.

Street, '90, and Willard P. Calkins, the publishers of the *Pandex of the Press*, San Francisco.

A first prize of five hundred dollars and a second of three hundred dollars have been offered to the students of the Universities of the State of California for the best essays on the subject Moral Training in Public Schools. The prizes have been offered by a citizen of the state who wishes his name withheld.

The length of the essay is to be not more than 12,000 nor less than 6,000 words; each essay must be submitted in typewritten form and all essays are to be in the hands of the committee of award by June 1, 1906. The donor of the prizes has appointed Rev. Charles R. Brown of Oakland, President David Starr Jordan of Stanford University, and Professor Fletcher B. Dresslar of the University of California as trustees of the fund and sole judges of the merits of the essays submitted.

THE PHILOSOPHICAL UNION.

The programme of the Philosophical Union for the year 1905-6 is a study of the Philosophy of Religion, based upon Principal Caird's Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion. The following is the list of discussions for the first half-year:

September 29.—The Scope of Human Knowledge. The question whether reason is capable of a knowledge of God. Determination of the limits and powers of reason, particularly in the light of the doctrine of the relativity of all human knowledge. Especial consideration of the views of Herbert Spencer. Professor C. H. Rieber, '88. Discussion opened by Mr. Charles A. Keeler, ex-'93.

October 27.—The Apparent Conflict of Reason and Faith. The assertion of an immediate knowledge of God which is beyond reason. Examination of the precise character of such intuitive knowledge or "faith." Whether

"faith" is in conflict with reason or is itself intrinsically rational. Rev. E. L. Parsons, rector of St. Mark's Episcopal Church, Berkeley. Discussion opened by Mr. Tracy R. Kelley, '96.

November 24.—The Apparent Conflict of Reason and Revelation. Whether reason and revelation are in essential opposition. The distinction between what is "contrary to reason" and what is "above reason." The real significance of a divine revelation. Rev. W. K. Guthrie, minister of the First Presbyterian Church, San Francisco. Discussion opened by Rev. W. R. Hodgkin, '00.

December 15.—The Necessity of Religion. Examination of materialistic objections to religion. The question whether the religious point of view is essential to human intelligence. What, precisely, the "necessity of religion" implies. Professor John W. Buckham, of the Pacific Theological Seminary. Discussion opened by Mr. Warner Brown, '04.

During the second half-year the programme will be:

January 26, 1906.—Proofs of the Existence of God. Critical examinations of the main traditional proofs of the existence of God. Whether, singly or together, they are successful as demonstrations. Their value as steps of the process by which we rise to a knowledge of God. Rev. Earl M. Wilbur, Dean of the Unitarian Theological School, Oakland. Discussion opened by Dr. M. E. Blanchard, '87.

February 23.—The Nature of Religious Consciousness. Whether religion is based on man's intelligent nature or is simply a form of feeling. The distinction between religious and scientific knowing. Whether religious experience can be adequately explained in terms of normal consciousness. Dr. F. W. Wrinch, Würzburg, '01. Discussion opened by Mr. A. C. Skaife, '00.

March 30.—Relation of the Philosophy to the History of Religion. The importance for philosophy of an historical treatment of religion. The equal necessity for a

philosophical interpretation of religious facts. Exemplification of the relation of philosophy and history by reference to the world religions. Professor W. F. Badè, of the Pacific Theological Seminary. Discussion opened by Rev. J. W. Hudson, '05.

April 27.—The Speculative Idea of Religion. Discussion of inadequate and erroneous conceptions of God, and development of an adequate view. The relation of God, Nature, and Human Mind. Criticism, especially, of the solutions of Pantheism and Anthropomorphism, and estimate of the solution offered by the author. Professor H. A. Overstreet, '99. Discussion opened by Professor C. W. Wells.

May 11.—Relation of Morality and Religion. The moral life as a stage preparatory to the religious. Whether religion is essential to complete morality. Religion as the realization of the moral ideal. The function of religious worship. Rev. J. H. Lathrop, minister of the First Unitarian Church, Berkeley. Discussion opened by Rev. William Higgs, assistant in the Church of St. John the Evangelist, San Francisco.

THE NEW FOLK-LORE SOCIETIES.

The Berkeley Folk-Lore Club and the California Branch of the American Folk-Lore Society, which were organized in August, while they are not University organizations in the sense of being confined to members of the University, are largely identified with it through the activity of members of the faculty and of the Alumni. The first named club met at the Faculty Club on November 28 to hear its first paper, which was read by Professor Fletcher B. Dresslar on the subject, *Some Studies in Superstition*. The California Branch of the American Folk-lore Society held its fourth meeting on November 14 in South Hall, where Professor John Fryer delivered an illustrated lecture on *Fox Myths in Chinese Folk-lore*.

The third meeting of the Branch, at the St. Francis Hotel, San Francisco, on October 30, was devoted to Japanese Folk-lore. The Branch was organized August 28, as noted in the last number of the CHRONICLE, and held its second meeting in conjunction with the American Anthropological Association on August 31.

THE PHILOLOGICAL CLUB.

At the meetings of the Philological Club the following papers have been presented:

September 11.—The Aim and Purpose of the New Curriculum, by Professor Alexis F. Lange.

October 2.—The Objects and Methods of Instruction in Latin in the Lower Division, by Professor H. W. Prescott.

October 30.—Textual and Genealogical Questions in C. I. L., XIV 309, by Professor Clifton Price.

Horace's *Alcaic Strophe*, by Professor L. J. Richardson.

November 27.—Objects and Methods of Instruction in the Lower Division, by Professor C. W. Wells.

THE DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICS.

The Department of Physics at its bi-weekly meetings has discussed a number of questions concerned with the work of the Department. These meetings are open to all interested in the subjects. A summary of the discussions of the first half-year is here given:

September 15.—The apparatus and methods employed in the Cryogenic Laboratory at Leyden were described by Dr. A. W. Gray.

September 29.—The Measurement of High Temperatures, by Dr. T. C. McKay.

October 13.—The Differential Electrodynamometer, by Professor Raymond.

The Measurement of High Temperatures, by Dr. T. C. McKay.

October 27.—Electricity and Radio-activity of the Atmosphere, by Professor E. P. Lewis.

November 10.—Professor Brace and his Work on the Relative Motion of Ether and Matter, by Dr. R. S. Minor.

November 24.—Connection and Displacement Currents, by Dr. L. A. Parsons.

December 8.—Radiation Pressure of Sound Waves, by Dr. Elmer E. Hall.

THE HARVEY CLUB.

The first public meeting of the Harvey Club for the current year was held November 28, and was addressed by Professor F. W. Bancroft on the subject The Response of Animals to the Electric Current.

UNIVERSITY MEETINGS.

September 8.—A meeting was held in the Greek Theatre in honor of the Association of Officers of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, whose convention was held this year in San Francisco. The speakers were Hon. Charles P. Neil, U. S. Commissioner of Labor, and David Ross, Labor Commissioner of the State of Illinois.

September 22.—A meeting was held in commemoration of the Weinhold Library, secured for the University through the generosity of Mr. John D. Spreckels. The speakers were Professor Hugo Karl Schilling, who described the Library and appraised its value, and Mr. John McNaught, Managing Editor of the San Francisco Call, who spoke in behalf of Mr. Spreckels.

October 6.—At a meeting in the Harmon Gymnasium the speakers were Hon. J. G. Maguire and Professor Fred. J. Wolle, recently appointed to the new Chair of Music.

October 20.—The meeting was held in Hearst Hall. The speakers were Professor Charles Mills Gayley, who spoke on the subject of Opportunities for Self-discipline in the

University Course, and Rev. John H. Lathrop of the Unitarian Church, Berkeley, whose subject was College Spirit.

November 10.—A very enthusiastic meeting in the Harmon Gymnasium was addressed by Professor Charles Zueblin, of the Department of Sociology of the University of Chicago, and Mr. John S. Partridge, U. C., '92, recently a candidate for Mayor of San Francisco. Both spoke on matters concerned with municipal government.

November 24.—A meeting in the Harmon Gymnasium was addressed by President Wheeler and by Professor Richard G. Moulton, Professor of Literary Theory and Interpretation in the University of Chicago.

COLLEGE OF COMMERCE LECTURES.

Following are the addresses that have been made at the weekly meetings of the College of Commerce:

August 28.—Economic Aspects of Irrigation, by Mr. R. P. Teele, of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

September 11.—The Value of the College of Commerce Course, by A. C. Miller, Flood Professor of Political Economy and Commerce.

September 18.—The Chicago Municipal Museum, by Professor Charles Zueblin, of the University of Chicago.

September 25.—The Governmental Regulation of Railroad Rates, by Mr. William Sproule, of the Southern Pacific Railroad Company.

October 2.—Railway Rate Regulation and the Interstate Commerce Commission, by Professor Carl C. Plehn.

October 9.—The Financing of a County, by Mr. Charles Husband, Assistant Treasurer of Alameda County.

October 16.—The Russo-Japanese Treaty and its Consequences, by Professor Bernard Moses.

October 23.—The Single Tax, by ex-Congressman James G. Maguire.

October 30.—Estimating the Profits of a Corporation, by Professor H. R. Hatfield.

November 6.—The Difficulties of Establishing Certain Manufactures on the Pacific Coast, by Mr. George W. Dickie, of the Union Iron Works, San Francisco.

November 13.—The Regulation and Control of San Francisco Harbor, by Mr. Charles Spear, President of the State Board of Harbor Commissioners.

November 20.—Development of Commerce with the Orient, by Mr. Horace Davis, formerly President of the University of California.

November 27.—Organization and what it means to a Retail Business, by Mr. R. B. Hale, of Hale Bros., San Francisco.

December 4.—Recent Observations of Conditions in Mexico, by Mr. Franklin K. Lane.

THE HERZSTEIN LECTURES.

A series of six lectures during the month of October, provided for by the generosity of Dr. Morris Herzstein of San Francisco, were delivered at the Mark Hopkins Institute of Art by Dr. Alonzo Englebert Taylor, Professor of Pathology and Herzstein Lecturer of the University of California, on the following dates and subjects:

October 10.—The Toxic Agent in Gastro-intestinal Auto-intoxication.

October 13.—The Theory of Disinfection.

October 17.—The Relations of the Nitrogenous to the Carbonous Metabolism in Disease.

October 20.—The Value of Kryoscopic Investigations for Pathology and Diagnosis.

October 24.—The Derivation of the Body Sugar in the Diabetic.

October 27.—The Derivation of the Body Sugar in the Diabetic.

LECTURES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ROMANIC
LANGUAGES.

The Department of Romanic Languages has undertaken a series of public lectures to extend throughout the year on various French, Spanish, and Italian topics. The first series was given by Professor S. A. Chambers on the general subject of Some Great French Books, as follows:

October 12.—The Song of Roland.

October 19.—The Romance of Renart.

October 26.—The Romance of the Rose.

The second series was given in French by Mr. E. B. Lamare, on the subject Prominent Frenchmen of the 18th Century, as follows:

October 31.—Men of Science.

November 7.—Controversial Writers.

November 14.—Moralists and Poets.

November 21.—The Influence of Women.

A third series, in English, by Mr. Carlos Bransby, was devoted to the discussion of Juan Valera, the Spanish novelist.

November 2.—Juan Valera, the Man.

November 9.—Juan Valera, the Poet and Critic.

November 16.—Juan Valera, the Novelist.

A series of lectures in English by Mr. Robert Dupouey was given on the following subjects:

November 20.—The Barbizon School of Painters.

November 24.—The Work and Influence of François Millet.

November 27.—The Life of Gallois.

December 1.—Life and Character of Father Didon.

December 4 and 8.—Father Didon and the Leading Monks of France.

LECTURES BY DR. DOUGLASS HYDE.

By the generosity of Mr. James D. Phelan of San Francisco, it has been provided that the University of California

shall have the opportunity of hearing four lectures by the distinguished President of the Gaelic League, Dr. Douglass Hyde, of Dublin. Dr. Hyde arrived in New York in November, and is to lecture in various cities and at various universities of the East during December and January. His first college lecture was at Harvard on the 20th of November. He will reach California about the middle of February, and his lectures at the University of California will then begin immediately.

LECTURES BY PROFESSOR ANATOLE LE BRAZ.

Professor Anatole Le Braz, lecturer for the Federation de l'Alliance Française, will deliver a series of lectures at the University of California during the week beginning April 23, 1906. These lectures will be the same as Professor Le Braz delivered before the Cercle Française at Harvard, and will be of the utmost interest to those given to the study of French and the French people.

ENTERTAINMENTS OF THE MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC COMMITTEE.

The popular Scottish Day Entertainment, first given on July 15, was repeated in the Greek Theatre on the evening of September 8, with several new features. The proceeds were devoted to the purchase of Scottish literature for the Library of the University.

Mr. Edwin Emerson, Jr., one of the most famous of modern war correspondents, lectured under the auspices of the Musical and Dramatic Committee, September 13, at Hearst Hall. His subject was Running the Blockade at Port Arthur. The lecture was illustrated with stereopticon views.

On the afternoon of September 21 the University and the general public were given an opportunity to hear the music of the Bohemian Club Jinks for 1904. The concert

was given under the direction of Mr. W. J. McCoy, with the following programme:

Andante from the Unfinished Symphony in B Minor. *Franz Schubert*
 The Man in the Forest. *Joseph D. Redding*
 Symphonic Legend, with orchestration by W. J. McCoy.
 The Hamadryads. *W. J. McCoy*

The Man in the Forest expressed in allegory Bohemia's protection of the redwoods, and was taken from the Midsummer Jinks of 1902. The Hamadryads is the title of the Jinks of 1904.

On Friday, November 3, a concert was given in the Greek Theatre by Ellery's Italian Band, under the auspices of the Musical and Dramatic Committee.

THE HALF-HOUR OF MUSIC.

September 10.—A Mendelssohn Concerto, by Mr. August Hinrichs, violinist, and Mr. Frederick Maurer, pianist.

September 17.—The choir of the First Congregational Church, Oakland, conducted by Mr. Alexander Stewart, with a quartette composed of Mrs. Grace Davis Northrup, soprano; Mrs. Carroll Nicholson, contralto; Mr. Chester Rosekrans, tenor; and Mr. Henry L. Perry, bass; assisted by Miss Virginie De Fremery, accompanist.

September 24.—Mr. Samuel Savannah, violinist; Mr. William Wertsch, 'cellist, and Mr. Arthur Fickenschel, pianist.

October 1.—The Orpheus Club, of Oakland.

October 8.—The vested choir of men and boys of the Church of the Advent, San Francisco, conducted by Mr. John De P. Teller, organist and choirmaster, assisted by Mr. Frank Onslow, alto; Mr. Arthur A. Macurda, tenor; Mr. Henry L. Perry, bass; and Mr. Rea Hanna, '00, accompanist.

October 15.—A programme of vocal and instrumental music given by Mrs. Marian E. B. Robinson, Miss Elsie Arden, Mr. Walter Chauncey Campbell, and Mr. Nathan Landsberger, with Mrs. Landsberger and Miss Julia Rapier Tharp as accompanists.

October 22.—The University Cadet Band, Mr. S. Frederick Long, Jr., '06, director.

October 29.—A programme of vocal and instrumental music under the direction of Mr. W. J. McCoy.

November 5.—The Minetti Orchestra of San Francisco, under the direction of Mr. Giulio Minetti.

November 12.—The Brahms Quintet, composed of Miss Millie Flynn, soprano; Mrs. Cecelia Decker Cox, contralto; Mr. Arthur A. Macurda, tenor; Mr. Henry L. Perry, basso; Miss Julia Rapier Tharp, pianist.

November 19.—A programme of vocal and instrumental music was given under the direction of Mrs. Marriner Campbell by Mrs. Lillie Birmingham, contralto; Mrs. Klippel Schaffter, soprano; Miss Grace Freeman, violinist; Miss Julia Rapier Tharp and Mr. Fred Maurer, accompanists.

November 26.—The programme was given by the University Glee Club, conducted by Mr. Clement R. Rowlands, with Miss Harriet Smyth, accompanist; assisted by Miss Mabel Viola Gross, soprano, with Mr. J. B. Warburton, accompanist, and by Mr. T. K. Sweezy, trombonist.

December 3.—Mrs. Walter Longbotham, contralto; Mr. Claude Rossignol, violinist; Mr. Walter Longbotham, tenor; Miss Carrie Sheureman, pianist; Mrs. Laura Deay Perry, accompanist.

A lecture by Mr. Richard Mansfield, the distinguished actor, was delivered at the University on Thursday afternoon, November 23, under the auspices of the Musical and Dramatic Committee. Mr. Mansfield's subject was *Talking versus Acting*.

ANCIENT ART EXHIBIT OPENED.

The exhibit of plaster casts and reproductions illustrative of ancient art has been arranged in the storage building of the Department of Anthropology in Berkeley. The collection numbers five hundred pieces, large and small, which are arranged in approximate chronological order, beginning with Oriental art, through the archaic and middle Greek Periods, down to Hellenistic and Roman times. The exhibit has been fully catalogued and labeled. Dr. P. E. Goddard, of the Department of Anthropology, is in charge of the exhibit.

GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS.

During the remodeling of the Harmon Gymnasium, a portion of the old building was moved to a convenient position west of the Telegraph avenue entrance to the grounds and has there been fitted up for the use of the department of Entomology. A coat of shingles gives a pleasing appearance to the exterior of the building, while the interior has been arranged to provide students with greatly needed laboratory facilities. Five rooms for individual work have been provided, which students specializing in entomology may have the privilege of keeping for one or two terms for their exclusive use. Up to the present time research work such as is now provided for has been almost impossible to undergraduates.

Aside from these exceptional facilities for research work, the building will be the most completely appointed and conveniently arranged entomological laboratory in the United States. At least eighteen hives of bees will be housed in the attic of the building, where their actions can be observed by students and instructors. On the top floor there is stacked a set of specimens of hymenopterous insects, probably the most complete collection of California bees, wasps and ants in the country. The apiary, the specimen reference department, the anatomical laboratories with

their valuable microtomes, the photographic department, the high, low and medium temperature rooms, lecture rooms and offices, make the new entomological building one of the most satisfactorily arranged buildings on the University grounds.

Work has been commenced on a small building to be erected near the Euclid avenue entrance to the University grounds, for the use of the Department of Architecture. Hitherto the instruction in architecture and the work of the University architect and his staff have been carried on in rented rooms in Berkeley. The new building will cost about \$5,000, and while obviating the expense of outside offices will also add greatly to the convenience of Professor John Galen Howard, his associates and students.

Contracts have been let to the amount of \$2,765 to Nelson & Boldt for putting in the doors and windows of the President's house. The building has long been standing in an unfinished condition, owing to uncertainty as to the uses to which it would be put. It will now be carried to completion and used as the residence of the President of the University.

Kidder & McCullough have been awarded a contract for \$13,001 for further interior work on California Hall. This contract will provide for stationary office fixtures, blackboards, platforms, book-cases, and the like. The Regents have made an appropriation of \$10,000 from the Permanent Improvement Fund for the furniture in California Hall. The furniture is to be made to order for this building.

The completion of California Hall has been so long delayed that it has not been possible to occupy it during the first half-year. The registration for the second half-year will in all likelihood be held in the new building, as the administrative offices of the University will probably move to their new rooms during the Christmas vacation.

Unexpected delays have also prevented the use of the Harmon Gymnasium by classes during the first half-year. The new shower baths have been completed, and the new steel lockers will all be installed by the end of the year. Owing to the fact that the gymnasium has not been open to the use of students, the men who paid the gymnasium deposit at the beginning of the term will receive a rebate on the deposit, payable when the gymnasium is ready for classes. Students registered for prescribed work in gymnastics will be given credit for the half-year's work.

It has been decided to lay an asphalt sidewalk between the gymnasium and the present end of the cement walk west of South Hall.

SOME INTERESTING MOJAVE MYTHS.

The Department of Anthropology has recently brought to completion an investigation in connection with its Ethnological and Anthropological Survey of California. Two Mojave Indians from the interior desert in Southern California spent ten days at the Anthropological Building at the Affiliated Colleges in San Francisco, and during this time two extensive ceremonies were recorded from their recitation of them. Most of the ceremonies of the Mojaves are peculiar in being little else than long myths interspersed with great numbers of songs. The myths recount the origin of the world, of animals and people, traditionary migrations and intertribal wars, and supernatural events. The number of songs, each distinct from the others, varies from one hundred to four hundred, and the time consumed by a complete ceremony, conducted without intermission, is from one to two nights. The two ceremonies now obtained are the ninth and tenth that have been recorded from this tribe. The entire narrative or spoken portions have been written down. The songs, and parts of the narrative, have been recorded on phonograph cylinders in the

Mojave language, thus preserving with almost unique completeness for further study two of the most characteristic ceremonies of the Indians of the state.

FIRE IN THE HILLS.

On Monday, October 9, the University and many Berkeley residences were threatened by a grass fire which started near Grizzly Peak and assisted by a high wind spread rapidly over the hills back of the University. Students of the University in large numbers readily took up the task of fighting the fire, and it was very largely due to their efforts that no serious damage was done. Appreciation of the efforts of the students was shown by many letters of thanks from residents of Berkeley whose property was threatened, and by two checks, of fifty dollars each, one from Mr. Frank M. Wilson of Berkeley to the Associated Students, and the other from James Kenny, chief of the Berkeley Fire Department. The latter check was for one-half the amount given by Judge John Garber in recognition of the services rendered under the direction of Chief Kenny in fighting the fire, and divided by Mr. Kenny between the fire department and the students, in appreciation of the assistance received from them. The money was turned over to the Associated Students, to be used to pay for medical services or expenses for injuries to clothing incurred by students in their efforts to stop the fire.

RECENT UNIVERSITY PUBLICATIONS.

The following publications in the various scientific series of the University have appeared since the last mention in the CHRONICLE:

Botany.—Teratology in the Flowers of Some Californian Willows, by William Warner Mott. Vol. II, No. 7.

Classical Philology.—On the Influence of Lucretius on Horace, by William A. Merrill. Vol. I, No. 4.

Geology.—Differential Thermal Conductivities of Certain Schists, by Paul Thelen. Vol. IV, No. 11.

A Sketch of the Geology of Mineral King, by A. Knopf and Paul Thelen. Vol. IV, No. 12.

The Cold Water Belt along the West Coast of the United States, by Ruliff S. Holway. Vol. IV, No. 13.

Zoology.—The Pelagic Copepoda of the San Diego Region, by C. O. Esterly. Vol. II, No. 4.

The Non-incrusting Chilostomatous Bryozoa of the West Coast of North America, by Alice Robertson. Vol. II, No. 5.

Physiology.—On the Influence of Electrolytes on the Toxicity of Alkaloids, by T. Brailsford Robertson. Vol. II, No. 17.

On the Toxicity of Sea-water for Fresh-water Animals, by C. W. W. Ostwald. Vol. II, No. 18.

On the Validity of Pflüger's Law for the Galvanotropic Reaction of Paramecium, by Frank W. Bancroft. Vol. II, No. 19.

On Chemical Methods by which the Eggs of a Mollusc (*Lottia Gigantea*) can be caused to become Mature, by Jacques Loeb. Vol. III, No. 1.

PROFESSOR STEPHENS IN THE EAST.

Professor Henry Morse Stephens has been invited to deliver a course of eight lectures in Boston on the subject The Enlightened Despotisms of the Eighteenth Century, under the auspices of the Lowell Institute. The Lowell Institute is probably the most famous lecture foundation in America. The greatest scholars from all parts of the world are invited to deliver lectures in their respective fields under the Lowell Institute Endowment.

After completing his course of lectures in Boston, Professor Stephens will attend the meeting of the American

Historical Association in Baltimore, and will there deliver a second series of lectures for the Association. He will return to California early in January.

GROWTH IN THE GREEK DEPARTMENT.

The growth of the classes in the Greek Department of the University this year shows a remarkable tendency towards the culture courses. The three elementary courses in Greek (first year, second year, and Freshman year) show a gain, the total number of students in the three courses having risen from 74 to 109. The enrollment in Freshman Greek is 44, against 41 of last year. The number of students beginning Greek is 40, against 22 in 1904 and 12 in 1903.

Beginning October 29, the Library of the University has been open to the use of readers from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. on Sundays. This innovation has added greatly to the usefulness of the Library.

THE GRADUATES.

A NEW GRADUATE CATALOGUE.

A comprehensive catalogue of the graduates of all departments of the University has just been published and will be distributed to all graduates whose addresses are known. A catalogue of graduates of the Academic Colleges was published in 1899. The present catalogue differs from that of 1899 in including graduates of the Colleges of Medicine, Dentistry and Veterinary Science; of the Hastings College of the Law and of the California College of Pharmacy. As the courses of the Mark Hopkins Institute of Art and of the Post-graduate Medical Department do not lead to a degree, the students of these departments of the University are not represented in this catalogue.

The catalogue contains a sketch of the front elevation of the proposed Alumni Hall. Together with this book, which is neatly bound in blue cloth with gold lettering, there have been sent out to all the accessible graduates circulars describing the method by which funds for the Alumni Hall are being raised; a pamphlet containing an account of the Greek Theatre reprinted from the *Sunset Magazine* for December, 1903, with a statement from President Wheeler added, calling attention to the proposed plan for marble seats to be put in the amphitheatre by contributions from the classes; a circular suggesting the availability of the UNIVERSITY CHRONICLE as an Alumni organ; and blank record cards to be filled out and returned by the graduates to be used as the basis of a complete card catalogue of the Alumni.

The information contained in the catalogue is as complete as the available records allow. The lack of accurate records of graduates of the professional schools, of Law, Medicine, Dentistry, and Pharmacy is particularly noticeable and unfortunate, but what is given will serve as a basis for more accurate records to be collected later. The labor involved in collecting the material has been considerable, and the thanks of the University and of its graduates are due to Mr. Alfred C. Skaife, '00, who inaugurated the work and carried it through.

Nothing will be of more value to the University at the present stage of its history than an understanding on the part of the graduates of its work and aims, and their co-operation in its development. Such has been the growth of the University during the past decade that the members of even comparatively recent classes are as completely out of touch with present conditions in the University as if they had graduated from another institution. It is desired that all graduates of all the classes shall feel their connection with the University as it is and as it will be, and that they shall realize the value of their participation in the history of the State's greatest educational institution and in what has become one of the foremost universities in the country.

In the work of organizing the Alumni it is inevitable that great reliance must be placed upon the class organizations and upon the class secretaries for their assistance in keeping in touch with the members of their respective classes. At the same time, assistance will freely be given by the officers of the University who will undertake the care of the University's record of its graduates.

The completion of the Alumni Hall will be of great advantage both to the Alumni and to the undergraduates. Tangible evidence in stone, standing upon the grounds of the University, will then bear witness to the intimate connection between the University and its graduates. It is

to be regretted that the fund for the erection of this building has so far grown so slowly; it is confidently expected, however, that when its purposes and advantages are better understood, its support will be more vigorous and its progress more rapid.

GRADUATES IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Henry Hay, '94, visited the University in September. Mr. Hay is manager of the Witwatersrand Deep mine near Johannesburg, South Africa. Mr. Hay has under him a number of University of California men. J. E. McGuire, '98, is acting manager of the mine in Mr. Hay's absence. P. M. Newhall, '98, is engaged in construction work. Others connected with this mine are R. L. Brewer, '94, head surveyor; Lloyd Womble, '02, mine foreman; C. H. Aspland, '02; Fred Lowell, ex-'97; and H. G. Hotchkiss, '03.

A number of U. C. men are in the South African gold fields. William Mien, ex-'00, Karl F. Hoffman, '99, Jack Hoffman, '01, John W. Craig, '99, and Harry H. Webb, '75, are in the Rand district. Mr. Mien is general manager for the Robinson Gold Mining Company. Mr. Webb is consulting engineer for the Consolidated Gold Fields. Karl and Jack Hoffman are on the staff of Messrs. Ekstein and are located at Johannesburg. Jack Craig is manager for the Tudor Gold Mining Company. George Hoffman, '95, is consulting engineer to A. Goerz of Johannesburg.

The California men have formed an Alumni Society of which Percy M. Newhall, '98, is corresponding secretary. The object of the society is to meet and dine at Johannesburg on the eve of the annual football game with Stanford.

OTHER GRADUATE MINERS.

F. M. Simpson, Mining, '99, is in charge of a cyanide plant at Zacuma, Ecuador, South America, for the South

American Development Company, which is one of the Vanderbilt enterprises.

Professor Christy, Dean of the College of Mining, has received an interesting letter from Ralph T. Mishler, Mining, '05, who has been appointed mine surveyor at Angangula, Estado Micheacan, Mexico. The mine where he is located is over one hundred years old, and has over thirty miles of tunnels and underground workings. In many of them it is impossible to stand erect, as they were originally very small, and besides, are, in some places, partly caved in. Mr. Mishler writes that he spent an entire day going through about one-twentieth part of the mine, and what he covered in that time would equal two average California mines in extent. The mine is situated at a great altitude, and in a very healthful climate.

Mr. Mark Alling, Mining, '03, returned recently from an exploration of the gold fields of Seward Peninsula, in Alaska, which he has made for a New York company. He gave a very interesting account of his experiences, and of the principal geological and economic features of the Seward Peninsula, before the Senior mining students, November 1.

F. A. Gowing, Mining, '03, was on a short visit to the University from Mexico in October. Mr. Gowing is superintendent of a large gold mine near Cienaga de Casal, Sinaloa, Mexico, where he has a large and rich vein opened up by tunnels, and is running a stamp mill,—forty stamps, and a cyanide plant, which is giving excellent results, and a handsome profit to the owners.

Ernest Denicke, '99, has returned from a successful experience as a mining engineer in South Africa and Madagascar, to direct some development work near Oroville, California.

Judge Curtis H. Lindley, ex-'74, is giving a special course of lectures on Mining Law for the benefit of the

Seniors in the College of Mining. They are illustrated with lantern slides showing the diagrams and models that were used in the principal lawsuits which are matters of record.

Judge Lindley is the author of a work on Mining Law which is considered a standard authority on the subject.

